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BLACK AMERICANS IN DEFENSE OF OUR NATION



Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense
for Equal Opportunity and Safety Policy

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE





THE SECRETARY OF DEFENSE
WASHINGTON, THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA



25 January 1985

Dear Reader:

I am pleased to issue this updated edition of Black Americans in Defense of Our Nation, which pays tribute to the heroic contributions of black Americans to this Nation's security. In this edition, we particularly wish to highlight the distinguished military heritage of black Americans who committed themselves to this Nation's defense during the last four centuries.

I believe it is vital for the American people to be aware of and to honor publicly the contributions of military and civilian members of the Department of Defense team. Thus, the black Americans who have served and do serve in America's defense certainly deserve recognition as well as fair and equitable treatment. This is the public policy of our Human Goals Program and one that we intend to fulfill completely.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature of Caspar W. Weinberger is located at the bottom of the letter. The signature is written in a cursive style and reads "Caspar W. Weinberger".

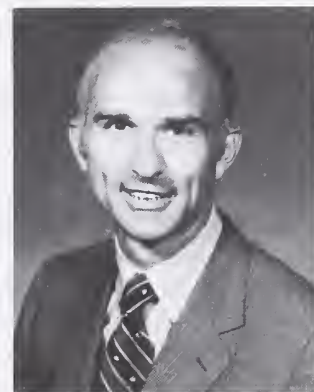
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MANPOWER,
RESERVE AFFAIRS
AND LOGISTICS

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF DEFENSE

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20301



25 January 1985

Dear Reader:

This updated version of Black Americans in Defense of Our Nation serves to remind all Americans of the diversity and richness of our military heritage.

The publication chronicles the outstanding contributions of black Americans to the defense of this nation by presenting an overview of their participation in conflicts, large and small, from the colonial period through Vietnam, in addition to peacetime service. A separate chapter highlights the contributions of black women; a subject often overlooked in the fragmented military history concerning black Americans.

In addition, the booklet features a picture of each black general or flag officer who has ever served in the armed forces of this Nation. Special tributes are paid to the Reconstruction generals; to Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., the second black general and the first black graduate of West Point to attain that grade; to Daniel "Chappie" James and Roscoe Robinson, Jr., the highest ranking black general officers to serve in the military.

A brief history on each of the uniformed military service academies is presented with special emphasis given to the involvement of black cadets and midshipmen at each school. A roster of every black man and woman to graduate from the academies is also presented. The booklet also includes a discussion of black civilian employees of the Department of Defense as they are an integral part of our total defense mission. Pictures of all current DoD black Senior Executive Service members are also featured.

This booklet expresses symbolically our gratitude for the past and present contributions of the men and women named in its pages.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature of Lawrence J. Korb is located below the "Sincerely," text. The signature is written in a cursive style.

Lawrence J. Korb
Assistant Secretary of Defense
(Manpower, Reserve Affairs & Logistics)



MANPOWER
RESERVE AFFAIRS
AND LOGISTICS

OFFICE OF THE ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF DEFENSE

WASHINGTON D C 20301



25 January 1985

Dear Reader:

When the revised and expanded edition of Black Americans in the Defense of Our Nation was issued in February 1982, it received much acclaim from veterans organizations, educational institutions, civil rights groups, and members of the general public.

We are pleased to offer this updated version of that edition. The Department of Defense salutes Black Americans who, undaunted in their conviction of the inherent dignity of the individual, have contributed so much to the heritage, progress, and defense of our Nation. Their dedication and accomplishments should serve as an inspiration to all Americans.

It is appropriate that we recognize their records of achievement and excellence as we reissue this very popular booklet.

Sincerely,

Donna M. Alvarado

Donna M. Alvarado
Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense
for Equal Opportunity and Safety Policy



DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

Black Americans in Defense of Our Nation

**Office of
Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense
for Equal Opportunity
and Safety Policy**

A Fighter's Famous Words



General Daniel "Chappie" James, Jr. 1920-1978

- "MY MOTHER USED TO SAY: DON'T STAND THERE BANGING ON THE DOOR TO OPPORTUNITY, THEN, WHEN SOMEONE OPENS IT, YOU SAY, WAIT A MINUTE, I GOT TO GET MY BAGS. YOU BE PREPARED WITH YOUR BAGS OF KNOWLEDGE, YOUR PATRIOTISM, YOUR HONOR, AND WHEN SOMEBODY OPENS THAT DOOR, YOU CHARGE IN."
- "WE'VE STILL GOT ANOTHER MILE TO RUN IN THAT RACE FOR EQUALITY. BUT WE'VE GOT A LOT BETTER TRACK TO RUN ON AND THE TROPHIES AT THE END ARE A LOT BETTER THAN THEY USED TO BE."
- "PROVE TO THE WORLD THAT YOU CAN COMPETE ON AN EQUAL BASIS."
- "IT IS STRANGE NOT TO BE PATRIOTIC IN A COUNTRY THAT HAS AFFORDED ME AS MANY OPPORTUNITIES AS MINE HAS."
- "I WEAR MY PATRIOTISM LIKE A BADGE. I'M PROUD OF IT."
- "I AM ... ABOVE ALL ELSE ... AN AMERICAN."

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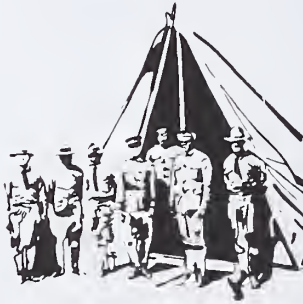
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The Military Heritage of

Black Americans

in Defense of Our Nation: an Overview

"There are those who will ask, why make a parade of the military services of Colored Americans instead rather of their attention to and progress in the various other departments of civil, social, and political elevation? To this let me answer that I yield to no one in appreciating the propriety and pertinency of every demonstration, on the part of Colored Americans, in all pursuits, which, as members of the human family, it becomes them to aspire for; and, among those, my predilections are, least and last for what constitutes the pomp and circumstances of War.

But the Orator's voice and Author's pen have each been eloquent in detailing the merits of Colored Americans in the various ramifications of society, while a combination of circumstances have veiled from the public eye a narration of those military services which are generally conceded as passports to honorable and lasting notice of Americans."

William C. Nell, 1851

"I, Too, Am America"

Langston Hughes

Introduction

The military heritage of black Americans is as long as the history of a black presence in North America. From the first recorded visit of a black person to what is now the United States in 1528, blacks, slave and non-slave, have participated in military or quasi-military actions. Such participation has not received extensive coverage in general history books. Nor was such participation undertaken without difficulty. White Americans have been ambivalent over the years about black participation in military organizations and in most instances have encouraged or allowed blacks in military activities only when forced by circumstances to do so.

This booklet does not attempt to chronicle the full range of black contributions to America's military; for they are substantial. Rather, it presents a brief overview which touches upon significant events in U.S. military history and the role of black Americans in that history.

The image of military organizations within the societies they serve, particularly in democracies, is a cyclical one - positive in times of crisis, negative in times of peace. Whatever the current image, it is appropriate to remember those who have made contributions or set precedents. It is to such a group that this brief history is dedicated.

Colonial Period (1528-1774)

Most history books note that the first blacks to arrive in North America came as slaves to Jamestown in 1619. The first recorded visit of a black person to what is now the United States, however, occurred almost one hundred years earlier.

In February, 1528, Panfilo de Narvaez led an expedition of 400 persons from Cuba. His goal was the Rio Grande river. Among his party was a black slave named Estebanico (also known as Estevan, or Stephen).

Beset by storms, the expedition was driven ashore on the west coast of Florida. The party split and some proceeded overland while others stayed aboard ship and attempted to reach their original destination. The land party met disaster, and seven years later, four survivors, Estevan among them, reached northern Mexico where they were rescued. Taken to Mexico City, the survivors told of their incredible journey and of a region to the north which had several large, wealthy cities. It was also stated that Estevan knew the trail leading to them.

Don Antonio de Mendoza, Imperial Viceroy in Mexico, authorized Estevan, now called Estevanico de Dorantes, to guide an expedition to seek out the golden cities which he had learned about while wandering among the Indians in Texas and northern Mexico.

Traveling north from Mexico City, Estevan soon separated from Fray Marcos, a priest and titular head of the expedition. Striking out with his own retinue, Estevan traveled through northern Mexico, parts of Arizona, and New Mexico. He eventually reached the pueblo of Hawikuh, one of six pueblos of the people now known as the Zuni, in

May, 1539. There, after apparently insulting the tribespeople, he was killed; thus ending the first visit of a black person to this continent. His death and the continued reports of the golden cities caused Viceroy Mendoza to send a second expedition, under Coronado, to the area. Coronado's search for the Seven Cities of Cibola are well known.

During the seventeenth century, Europeans--English, Dutch, French, Spanish--established colonies along the east coast of the present day United States. Blacks, principally slaves, arrived in 1619 (Jamestown), 1626 (New Amsterdam), and 1636 (Salem). Native Americans were perceived by most colonists to pose a threat. Consequently, militia groups were organized for self-defense from among the citizens. The first law enacting such an organization was passed in 1607.

Throughout Europe, defense of one's city or country was an obligation of male citizens. Prominent, upper-class citizens became officers and more common folk, soldiers. The lower classes of society served in the professional army for service abroad. This pattern was loosely followed in the colonies. Early legislation made no reference to race as a criterion for membership or nonmembership; however, by 1639, Virginia had enacted a bill excluding "Negroes" from being provided with arms or ammunition.

Experiences varied from colony to colony. In 1641, the Dutch West India Company in the colony of New Amsterdam armed black slaves with "a tomy hawk and a half pike" to assist the colonists in fighting "murderous" Indians. In 1643, a black man, Abraham Pearse, was listed on the roles of men capable of bearing arms in Plymouth colony. By 1652,

Massachusetts colony required: "All Negroes and Indians from sixteen to sixty years of age, inhabitants or servants to the English, be listed and hereby enjoined to attend [militia] trainings as well as the English."

Such militia service by blacks, however, was scattered and on an individual basis. New England colonies soon followed the Virginia lead and began to ban blacks from militia organizations. These actions created much controversy among white colonists. While there was fear that blacks trained in the use of weapons and tactics would increase the likelihood of slave revolts, exclusion of blacks from the militia gave them a high social status on par with ministers and public officials, who were also exempted. Many colonial legislatures, therefore, required able-bodied free blacks to work on public projects for as many days as white settlers gave to military service. Black slaves were also commonly used as laborers as demonstrated by the Dutch in 1664 when they put their slaves to work building breastworks to defend New Amsterdam from assault by the English.

Throughout the colonial period in New England and the central colonies, free blacks were generally permitted to enlist as soldiers in the militia. Slaves, however, were excluded from armed service and were used only as laborers. South Carolina was the sole exception, allowing "trusty" slaves to assist in the defense of the colony in 1703.

In the southern colonies, greater restrictions were placed upon blacks, due generally to their greater numbers, the paucity of free blacks, and white concerns about slave revolts. Nonetheless, in times of emergency, blacks were permitted by law to serve in military units. This was a policy adopted of neces-

sity as there were too few whites to carry out a large scale military effort. By 1706, all free men in North Carolina were required to be organized into militia units and in the event of Indian outbreaks, all able bodied men, slave and free, were required to serve. In 1711, blacks fought in the Tuscarora War in North Carolina and in 1715 approximately four hundred blacks and six hundred whites defeated a group of Indians in the Yamasee War.

In the southernmost colonies, a similar pattern occurred. From 1718 to 1731 approximately two thousand black slaves had been brought to the French colony of Louisiana. They constituted over a third of the colony's population. Most were sold to white settlers by the Company of the Indies, but others were retained by the Company. Some of these people were organized into semimilitary units for control purposes, and in late 1729, a company of volunteers from this group was used by the governor to destroy a village of the Chaouacha Indians as a lesson to neighboring tribes not to join a revolt underway by the Natchez Indians.

Later in 1730, blacks constituted approximately 10% of a force which clashed with Natchez warriors near Pointe Coupe'e. A memorial praising black participants in this conflict was presented in mid 1730 which recommended freedom for all slaves who risked their lives for the French. Some were freed. In 1736, blacks constituted almost 19% of a Spanish force assembled in Mobile for another assault on the Natchez. Accompanying them was a separate company of blacks with free blacks serving as officers. This represents the first occasion blacks served as officers in a colonial military unit.

Further north, French and English forces clashed over the boundaries of the possessions of the two

countries. The fight, known as the French and Indian War, began in 1753 and ended in 1764. Blacks served as scouts, wagoners, and laborers in this war with the regular English forces. In addition, black militia men served with independent colonist units from Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Virginia, New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts. By the end of the war, England had captured much of the territory previously claimed by France, and black Americans had won honors in battles at Fort Duquesne, Fort Cumberland, and the Plains of Abraham outside Quebec. "Negro Mountain" in Western Maryland honors a black man killed in a fight against the Indians during this war.

By the end of the Colonial period, several patterns had emerged.

Black had become synonymous with slave even though there were numerous free blacks in many Northern colonies. As the black population grew from zero in the 1600's to 462,000 in 1770, white colonists increasingly feared that blacks trained in military arts would foment revolts. Hence blacks were exempted from peacetime military duty. During emergencies, however, there was insufficient manpower among the white colonists to meet the military need. Therefore, limited numbers of blacks were allowed to participate; generally in support roles, but occasionally in combat units. Leadership roles, particularly officer positions, however, were denied to blacks.



1st Rhode Island Regiment by Jerry Pinkney

U.S. Army Photograph
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American Revolution (1775-1783)

General

On the eve of revolution, approximately 20% of the colonial population of 2½ million was black. From the very beginning, the question of arming the black population proved a source of bitter controversy among the colonists. Blacks had already proven themselves in combat during the previous years and many were members of the new state militias. Fear of slave revolts, however, was still first in the minds of many white colonists. Resultant policies differed in the newly created Continental Army and Continental Navy, so they will be examined separately.

Army

As early as April, 1775 black "minutemen" had fought at Lexington and Concord. But should they be permitted into the newly formed "regular" army?

In May, 1775 the Committee of Safety of the Massachusetts legislature presented the following resolution:

"Resolved, that it is the opinion of this Committee, as the contest now between Great Britain and the Colonies respects the liberties and privileges of the latter, which the Colonies are determined to maintain, that the admission of any persons, as soldiers, into the army now raising, but only such as are freemen, will be inconsistent with the principles that are to be supported, and reflect dishonor on this Colony, and that no slaves be admitted into this army upon any consideration whatever."

Thus when George Washington assumed command of the Continental

forces in July, 1775, his Adjutant General, Horatio Gates, ordered recruiting officers not to enlist any "stroller, Negro, or vagabond".

If the colonists were fearful of black recruits, their British opponents were not. Recognizing that slavery was a divisive issue, suffering from his own manpower shortages, and desiring a swift end to the conflict, John Murray, Earl of Dunmore and Royal Governor of Virginia, issued a proclamation on November 7, 1775 which stated:

"...and I do hereby further declare all indented servants, Negroes, or others, (appertaining to Rebels,) free, that are able and willing to bear arms, they joining His Majesty's Troops, as soon as may be, for the more speedily reducing the Colony to a proper sence of their duty, to His Majesty's crown and dignity."

By December, 1775 almost three hundred blacks, paying this price for freedom, with "Liberty to Slaves" inscribed on their uniforms, were members of Lord Dunmore's "Ethiopian Regiment".

As a result of Lord Dunmore's action, the continuing debate in the Continental Congress, and the protests from the excluded black community, Washington, in December, 1775, authorized recruiting officers to sign up free Negroes "desirous of enlisting". Slave participation was strictly prohibited and this was reinforced by General Orders issued on February 21, 1776.

Despite these policies, slaves did participate. Some were "substituted" for their masters who chose not to serve. In 1777, a journal entry by a Hessian officer noted the presence of blacks in most colonial

regiments and British troops sang this derisively:

"The rebel clowns, oh what a sight
To awkward was their figure
'Twas yonder stood a pious wight
And here and there a nigger"

By early 1777, Washington's army was down to only 1,400 effectives. In order to resolve the manpower shortage, Congress resorted to a draft, although it was unable to enforce the policy.

By mid 1778, each brigade in Washington's little army averaged 42 black soldiers; all serving on an integrated basis. Later in the year, all-black units (a battalion from Rhode Island, a company from Boston called the "Bucks of America", and a company from Connecticut known as the "Colonials") were formed. The most significant encounter in which an all-black unit fought was the battle of Rhode Island in August 1778. During that engagement, this unit, which was relatively untrained, held the line against four hours of British-Hessian assaults, enabling the entire American army to escape a trap.

In 1779 allied French forces besieged the British garrison of Savannah. Among the troops were approximately 600 free blacks and slaves from the French West Indies. Later that year, when Spain joined France as an ally, black troops from Louisiana comprised almost half the force commanded by Governor Bernardo Galvez who successfully drove the British from Louisiana and the Mississippi valley; thereby preventing the southern flank of the Continental forces from being turned.

By war's end, approximately 5,000 black soldiers had served in

the Colonial army of 300,000. Black troops had fought in most major battles and had garnered honors and praise from their commanders.

The Navy

The small Continental navy was supplemented by individual state navies, privateers, and vessels sailing under letters of marque. All carried blacks, although race was not always noted on ship rosters.

Naval vessels suffered from chronic manpower shortages. Many black seamen had naval experience from previous colonial wars or from serving on numerous coastal vessels prior to the war. Although no ship captains were black, many pilots were black. As early as 1775 a recruiting poster in Newport sought "ye able backed sailors, men white or black, to volunteer for naval service in ye interest of freedom."

No state passed legislation barring blacks from naval service and several states paid bonuses to black crew members or granted freedom to known slaves.

Conclusion

Service in Colonial military units on land and at sea brought some gains to specific blacks who had participated. Some who were slaves were freed and others received land grants for service. On the whole, however, contributions of black Americans were soon forgotten by the society at large. Although blacks died and gave brave, honorable service, none were given much recognition or declared to be national heroes.

War of 1812 (1812-1815)

With the end of the American Revolution, blacks were virtually eliminated from the small armed forces of the new nation. Congress passed an Act in 1792 restricting militia service to "free able-bodied white male citizens." Most states followed suit, restricting service in their militias to whites. Even rules issued in 1798 for the newly established Marine Corps stated that "no Negro, mulatto or Indian" was to be enlisted.

In 1803, however, the purchase of Louisiana from France created a dilemma for the new nation. A militia unit of free blacks, recognized by both Spain and France when they held the territory, volunteered to continue service under the United States. They were ignored; then partially recognized; then ordered disbanded. America was not prepared to support a group of armed blacks; particularly in the South.

During 1804-05, Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark explored the newly purchased Louisiana Territory and mapped an overland route to the Pacific Ocean. Clark brought along a slave called York. York soon became an ambassador for the expedition among the plains Indians. They had never seen a black man before and were intrigued. In addition, it was a custom among many of the tribes that warriors returning from a successful raid or battle would daub parts of their body with charcoal to symbolize their bravery. York was seen as a very brave man. His entire body was black and the color would not come off. He was obviously the leader of the group to many, not Lewis or Clark, for only braves lead parties such as this. Consequently, many tribes assumed to be hostile by Lewis and Clark were found to be friendly, thanks to York.

Although blacks had been barred from the militia in 1792 and from

the Marines in 1798, the Navy was too short of personnel to seek or enforce a similar ban. Thus, when the British man-of-war Leopard stopped the American ship Chesapeake in 1807 to search for deserters from the British navy, four blacks were among those impressed.

The war of 1812 proved, for the most part, to be a naval war with fleets engaged at sea as well as on the Great Lakes. With their Revolutionary war experience and relatively unlimited access to shipping jobs, blacks proved to be a most valuable and eagerly sought source of manpower. Blacks constituted from 10-20% of most ship's crews and performed heroic duty in many engagements. Even Oliver Hazard Perry, who objected to the "motley set-blacks, soldiers, boys" sent him in 1812, spoke of his black crew members as "absolutely insensible to danger" after their efforts in freeing the Great Lakes from British control.

On land, however, the black soldier was excluded. Attempts to volunteer were rejected in most states, although soon after Louisiana became a state in April, 1812, the legislature authorized the governor to enroll free black landowners in the militia. In September, 1812, the Battalion of Free Men of Color was formed around the group which had previously existed, but rejected in 1803. The commanding officer was white, but three black second lieutenants were commissioned. These troops did not see action until 1815.

New York was the first northern state to seek black participation in the war effort. In 1814, approximately two thousand blacks, slave and free, were enlisted into two regiments. Slaves were to receive their freedom at the end of the war. A battalion of blacks was also

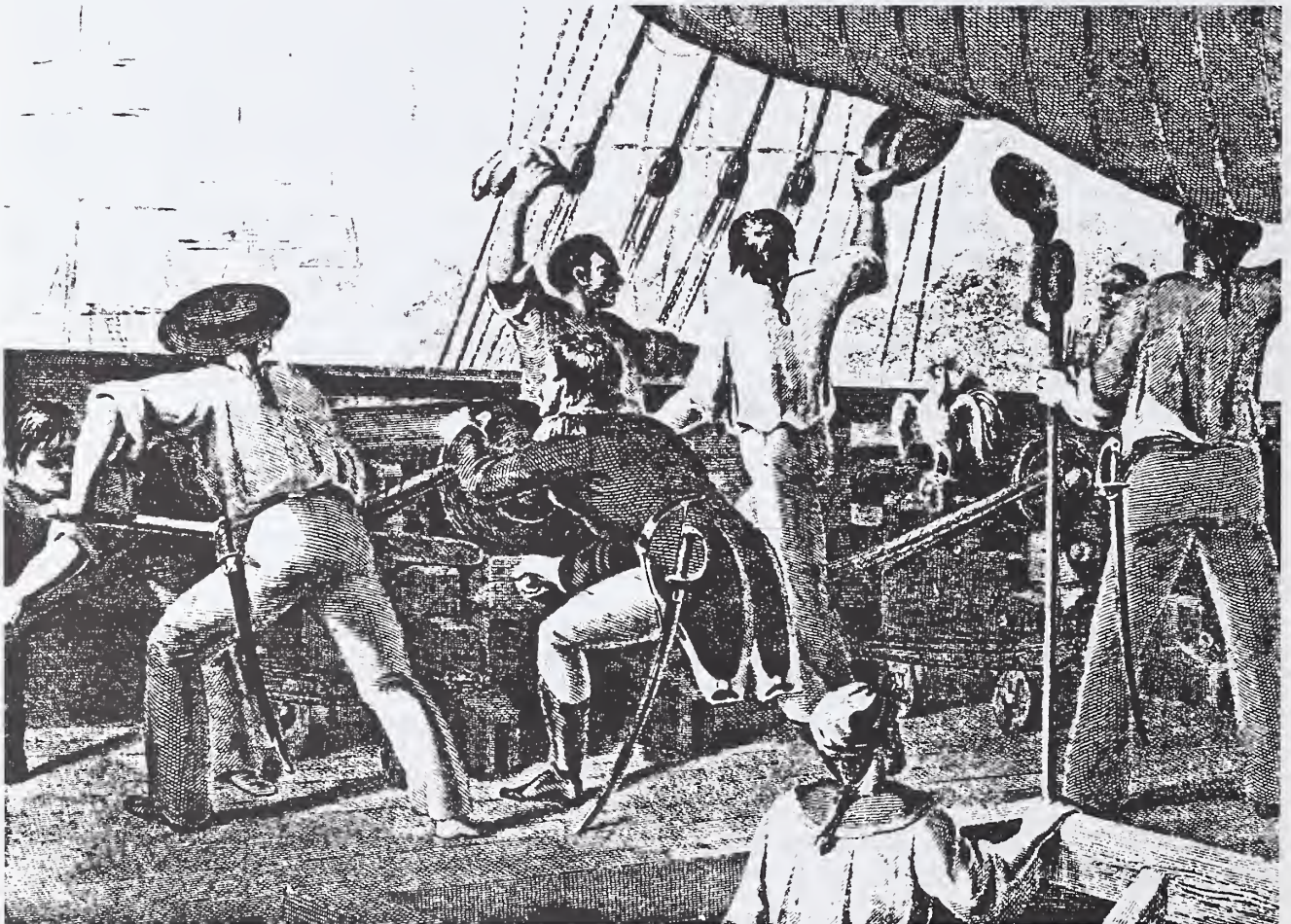
raised in Philadelphia, but the war ended before it saw service.

But it was in the southern theatre of war that the greatest contribution of black soldiers occurred, even though the war was officially ended.

British forces under General Pakenham threatened the city of New Orleans. Local citizens had rejected offers by the Battalion of Free Men of Color to assist in the city's defense. General Andrew Jackson, however, being short of effective troops insisted the offer be accepted. Drawn up on the Chalmette Plains, the American forces resisted the British attack. The black troops participating (the Battalion of Free Men of Color plus a battalion of soldiers from St. Domingo) held their

portion of the line, then counter-attacked. The worst defeat suffered by British arms in years produced a psychological high point for the American people. Ironically, the black role was soon overlooked, as black veterans were not permitted to march in the annual parades celebrating the victory.

The War of 1812 not only provided the capstone of American independence, it also consolidated the slave system of the South. Hopes of black Americans for peace and liberty were dashed when the Treaty of Ghent, which ended the war, provided for the mutual restoration of properties. Blacks who had fled to British lines seeking freedom were returned to slavery or taken to the West Indies, sold, and their American owners were indemnified.



Black sailors join in celebrating a victory during the War of 1812

The Seminole Wars (1816-1842)

Throughout the colonial period, but particularly during the American Revolution and the War of 1812, black slaves took advantage of the societal disruptions to escape. Many sought and obtained haven with the Seminole Indians in Florida. England and later Spain, which claimed portions of the area, refused to return the escapees to their irate owners. The blacks settled with the Seminoles, intermarried, and established themselves as farmers, counselors, and tribal war leaders.

During the War of 1812, a small British force rebuilt an old Spanish fort in Florida, approximately sixty miles from the border with the United States. The Commander, Lieutenant Colonel Nichols, recruited Indians and runaway blacks to staff the fort and soon raids were being conducted into Georgia. Their base became known as the "Negro Fort" and was a major irritant to Georgia slaveowners. In 1816, the fort was attacked and destroyed by American troops under Colonel Edmund Gaines. Thus the First Seminole War began as an attempt to recapture runaway slaves. After the Battle of New Orleans, General Andrew Jackson led a second expedition into Florida to recapture runaway slaves. He destroyed Indian villages, scattering their inhabitants and eventually forcing the Spanish to cede their Florida territory to the United States in 1819.

The Second Seminole War (1835-1842) was fought in order to remove

the Seminole from Florida because they were in the way of white settlement. Blacks constituted from one-quarter to one-third of the warrior strength that resisted this removal policy. After seven years of war, 2,000 U.S. soldier deaths, and \$40-60 million in government expenditures, the Seminoles and a few blacks were allowed to emigrate to Indian Territory. Some blacks escaped to Mexico, others were returned to former white owners.

The black presence among the Seminole is believed to be a principal reason that removal of the Seminoles was sought, as they were a magnet to plantation slaves in Georgia and elsewhere. Black presence with the Seminole also heavily influenced the Seminoles to resist. The prolonged and costly nature of the war proved to the soldiers who fought them that contrary to popular opinion, blacks could fight, had initiative, and possessed leadership qualities. These lessons were lost on the society at large.

In 1820 the Army prohibited "Negroes or Mulattoes" from enlisting and by 1850 the military exploits of blacks had been forgotten. It took the work of John Greenlief Whittier in 1847 and of William Nell, a black historian, in 1851 to remind the Nation that blacks had honorably served in America's military and deserved recognition for those efforts.

The Civil War (1861-1865)

When the war began in 1861, most people were in agreement that slavery was not the primary issue; restoration of the Union was the principal concern. Within days of its beginning, blacks volunteered to serve, but Lincoln, worried about driving the border states into the Confederacy, and Secretary of War Cameron, informed the volunteers that "This Department, has no intention at present to call into the service of the Government any colored soldiers."

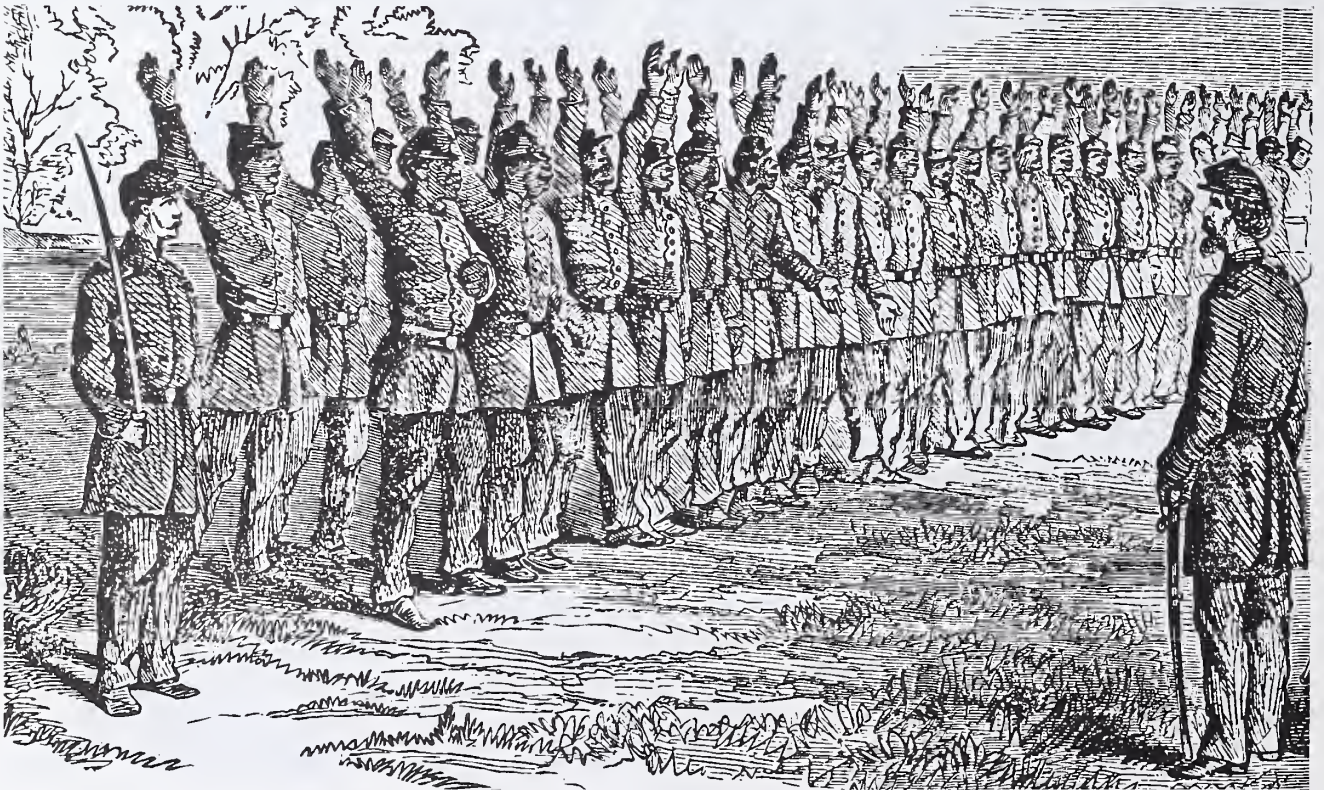
As occurred in the American Revolution, policies affecting black participation in the war effort were different in the Army and Navy, hence the policies of these services will be treated separately.

Army

It was generally thought that the war would be a short one, so

volunteers were sought for only ninety days. The abolitionist Frederick Douglass foresaw a much longer war and argued eloquently for the admission of blacks into the military. If the Government did not want blacks as a policy, some individual military leaders did. General John C. Fremont issued a proclamation of emancipation in Missouri in 1861; General David Hunter raised a regiment of black troops on the sea islands off the coast of Georgia; Senator James H. Lane accepted blacks in two Kansas volunteer units; and in Cincinnati, a black brigade was raised to build fortifications around the city in 1862. Each of these initiatives was countermanded or otherwise negated by the Lincoln administration.

Abolition was not a popular cause in the North, but Northern commanders knew the price being paid for not addressing the issue. They



Black soldiers pledge their allegiance to the United States

saw black laborers building fortifications for the Confederacy, working as cooks and teamsters, and taking over work on the farms. By May 1861, General Benjamin Butler attempted to circumvent Union policy by declaring slaves who entered his lines to be "contraband" and then put them to work as laborers building fortifications. By the end of 1861, blacks had moved into many semimilitary or military support positions.

Many leaders were convinced that blacks could not, or would not, fight. The educational efforts of Whittier and Nell had been for nought. It took a broadside by William Lloyd Garrison and a pamphlet by George Moore, a librarian and archivist, to prove to Lincoln and others that blacks had fought in the American Revolution!

By mid 1862, new calls for volunteers were meeting with limited success. Congress revoked the militia laws banning blacks and authorized Lincoln to use blacks as laborers, like Cincinnati's Black Brigade. Pressures persisted, and recently appointed Secretary of War Stanton finally approved the recruitment of black soldiers in August. An all-black regiment, with white officers, was raised in South Carolina and mustered into Federal service in January, 1863 as was a Volunteer Regiment in Kansas.

Soon after issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation, the Governor of Massachusetts was allowed to raise a regiment of black volunteers. The 54th Massachusetts Infantry (Colored) was born and Frederick Douglass appealed "men of Color, to Arms!" A new war objective had also been established--abolition.

In May 1863, the War Department created the Bureau of Colored Troops to handle the recruitment and organization of black regiments. All officers, however, were to be white.

Units were to be mustered directly into Federal service and to be known as the United States Colored Troops (USCT).

In 1861 and 1862, black soldiers had yet to participate in a major engagement, and many observers were still skeptical about their fighting ability. However, in May, June and July of 1863 black units fought at Port Hudson, Milliken's Bend, and Fort Wagner. The blood of black soldiers mixed with that of white compatriots on the battlefield and no one who saw the actions doubted black determination to fight. Yet, doubts persisted, and month after month, black soldiers felt the need to prove their worth, while few asked about the fighting ability of white units.

Bravery aside, most people did not expect black units to serve other than garrison duty-to free white units for combat. Black privates were paid only \$10.00 per month in comparison to \$13.00 for white privates. In addition, whites received an extra \$3.50 per month for clothing while \$3.00 was deducted from the black soldiers pay for clothing. Men of the 54th Massachusetts went without pay for a year in protest against this indignity. Equal pay was finally achieved in January 1864.

From 1864 through the end of the war, black participation in the war effort grew rapidly. Over 180,000 blacks served in USCT units, constituting 10% of the total Union strength. In addition, another 200,000 blacks served in service units as teamsters, laborers, dock workers, and pioneers. Blacks served in all military branches; over 120 infantry regiments were raised in addition to 7 cavalry regiments; 12 heavy artillery regiments; 5 engineer regiments; and 10 batteries of light artillery. Not all were in existence at the same time, however.

**"Who Would Be Free, Themselves Must
Strike the Blow!"**

\$200



\$200

COLORED MEN Of Burlington Co.,

Your Country calls you to the Field of Martial Glory. Providence has offered you an opportunity to vindicate the Patriotism and Manhood of your Race. Some of your brothers accepting this offer on many a well-fought field, have written their names on history's immortal page amongst the bravest of the brave.

NOW IS YOUR TIME!

Remember, that every blow you strike at the call of your Government against this accursed Slaveholders' Rebellion, you Break the Shackles from the Limbs of your Kindred and their Wives and Children.

The Board of Freeholders of Burlington Co.

Now offers to every Able-Bodied COLORED MAN who volunteers in the Service of his Country a BOUNTY of

\$200

CASH!

WHEN SWORN INTO THE SERVICE, and

\$10 PER MONTH

\$200

WHILE IN SUCH SERVICE. COME ONE! COME ALL!

GEO. SNYDER,

Recruiting Agent for Colored Volunteers of Burlington County.

U. S. Steam Print, Ledger Buildings, Philade

Despite the large number of black troops and units, fewer than 100 blacks served as officers. White officers were carefully selected, screened, and trained. Their quality generally being considered higher than for officers serving with white units. But it was assumed that this was necessary to motivate and control black troops. Further, it was assumed that blacks lacked the leadership qualities necessary to be officers, although thirteen black non-commissioned officers received Medals of Honor for their actions at Chapins Farm in 1864. All were cited for assuming command of their units and leading them in the assault after their white officers had been killed or wounded.

Navy

Suffering from its long standing shortage of manpower, the Navy began enlisting blacks as early as September, 1861. Blacks who early sought service, flocked to the Navy as entry into the Army was barred to them. Blacks, however, were confined to the positions of servant, cook, or Powder boy. By 1862, the regular seaman ranks were opened to blacks, and by war's end, some 30,000 blacks had served of a total Naval enlisted strength of 118,000; a much higher proportion than the Army.

Though blacks never achieved officer or petty officer rank, discrimination in the Navy was less apparent than in the Army. Ships crews were integrated and there were no separate all-black units. Prejudice

existed, particularly among Southern officers. Admiral Porter, for example, ordered segregation on ships in his command and prohibited blacks from jobs such as "lookout" for which he believed they lacked the requisite intelligence.

Perhaps the most famous incident involving seafaring blacks occurred early in the war. In May 1862, Robert Smalls, a black pilot, and seven slave crewmen seized the Confederate ship Planter. Making their way through the defenses of Charleston harbor, they turned the ship over to Union blockade forces. As a reward, Smalls was appointed to a position in the Union Navy and after the war was appointed as a general officer in the South Carolina militia.

Conclusion

By 1865, over 37,000 black soldiers had died--almost 35% of all blacks who had served in combat. This heavy toll reflected the fact that black units had served in every theatre of operations and in most major engagements, often as assault troops. Some of these casualties were due to poor equipment, bad medical care, and the "no quarter" policy followed by Confederate forces facing them. To the black troops themselves, these casualties reflected their great desire to prove to an uncaring nation their right to full citizenship and participation after the war. They were fighting to be free, not to return as slaves.

Reconstruction (1867-1877)

By the end of the war, black military units constituted almost 13% of the Union Army. They had fought well, and like their white counterparts, wanted to be discharged to pursue civilian careers.

Most blacks had enlisted for a term of three years or for the duration of the war. Since the bulk of the black units had not been organized until 1863 or 1864, most enlistees had one year left to serve when the war ended. The Army was inclined to keep these units as the rapid demobilization process was stripping it of troops necessary to garrison the recently surrendered southern states.

In June, 1865 there were approximately 122,000 black troops on active duty; by January 1866, this figure had dwindled to half and by June 1866, only 15,000 remained--most in the south.

The Federal Government believed that stationing troops in the South was necessary to maintain a tenuous

hold on political stability. Many white southerners wanted to return to their life style extant before the war. The presence of armed black soldiers in the South seemed to preclude achievement of either goal.

Tensions between white citizens and black soldiers increased, often because blacks would not revert to pre-war servility. In addition, black militia units were created to enable newly established state governments to reassert their authority. A large portion of these forces were comprised of blacks. Ten blacks were even appointed to general officer positions in these militia units, predominately in South Carolina.

The violent reactions of white southerners eventually caused the government to move the black USCT troops to western posts and to disband the militia units created to restore order. The Civil War was over, but negative attitudes about the role and status of black Americans remained.

The Indian Campaigns (1866-1890)

In March 1866, the U.S. Senate passed a bill establishing the Regular Army at 67 regiments. Six were to be composed of black troops with white officers. A further reorganization in 1869 reduced the six black regiments to four, the 9th and 10th Cavalry and the 24th and 25th Infantry.

The four regiments were scattered across the West to garrison posts in company or battalion size units. Their mission was to protect settlers moving west, suppress the hostile Indian tribes, guard the mail, and protect the railroad under construction. In addition, they often had to build their own quarters and forts.

To do this, they were issued "broken down" horses rejected by

white cavalry units, deteriorating equipment, and grossly inadequate rations. Despite the adversities, the morale in these units was high and they enjoyed the lowest desertion rate of all the Army units.

Life on the western frontier was harsh and monotonous. Boredom was a continual problem for all soldiers, but particularly black ones. On paydays, there were few places to spend their money. Even if a town were near a black garrison, the townspeople generally refused service to blacks and heaped abuse upon them, even though the soldiers constituted the town's only defense.

In 1881, for example, after several years of conflict with the citizens of San Angelo, Texas, sol-



Pen & Ink Sketch by Frederic Remington

diers posted the following handbill in town.

"We, the soldiers of the United States Army, do hereby warn cowboys, etc., of San Angelo and vicinity, to recognize our rights of way as just and peaceable men. If we do not receive just and fair play, which we must have, someone will suffer; if not the guilty, the innocent. It has gone too far; justice or death.

U.S. Soldiers, one and all"

In addition to hostile climate and a hostile citizenry, black soldiers faced numerous Indian tribes who resented the encroachment of the "civilizing influence from the East." In over one hundred battles, black soldiers clashed with Indian warriors. Their bravery earned them the sobriquet "Buffalo Soldiers" from the Indians and 18 of 370 Medals of Honor awarded by the U.S. Government.

The first black American to receive the Medal of Honor during the Indian Campaigns was Sergeant Emanuel Stance, Company F, 9th Cavalry. Stationed at Fort McKavett, Texas in 1870, Sergeant Stance and nine troopers commanded by Captain Henry Carroll left the fort on routine patrol. They were searching for Indians who had stolen two children during a raid. Approximately 14 miles from the fort, they observed a party of Indians escorting nine horses. They attacked and engaged in a running fight for eight miles when the Indians broke contact, abandoning the animals. Camping overnight, the soldiers headed back for the fort the next morning with the captured horses when they encountered about twenty Indians who were stalking a herd of government horses and a small detachment of guards. Again Stance and the men attacked. The Indians retreated,

regrouped and counterattacked. Stance and several men constituted the left flank of the Army column. They outflanked the attacking Indians, who fled. Captain Carroll was full of praise for Sergeant Stance and recommended him for a medal which was awarded in June.

Sixteen years later, Stance, now a First Sergeant, was still in the Army. His unit, F Troop, had been reassigned to Fort Robinson, Nebraska, and found little to do other than chase an occasional outlaw. Garrison duty bore heavily upon the soldiers. Tempers flared and brawls became a frequent occurrence. The non-commissioned officers began to lose control of their men and the guard house filled with bored, harassed soldiers who had responded to pettiness with violence. Stance was one of the more strict disciplinarians in the unit and a center of the conflict.

In December 1887, the body of First Sergeant Stance was found on



Second Lieutenant Henry O. Flipper

the road to Crawford, Nebraska with four bullet wounds; the probable victim of his own men.

No black served as an officer in the Regular Army until 1877 when Henry Ossian Flipper became the first black to graduate from the United States Military Academy at West Point. Given the segregation policies in effect at the time, Lt. Flipper would have had no place to serve if the black regiments in the West had not existed. Flipper was assigned to the 10th Cavalry, but despite successful service for four years, he found himself under attack by his fellow officers and was discharged in 1881 for conduct unbecoming an officer.

Though rejected by the military, Flipper found his engineering skills in demand by many people. He worked as a civil engineer, trans-

lated Spanish land grant documents and helped to build a railroad in Alaska. Throughout his civilian career he built a reputation for professionalism and incorruptibility. During his lifetime he never overcame the stigma of the unproven charge of "embezzling public funds" early in his military career.

In December, 1976, the Army, at the behest of the first black graduate of the U.S. Naval Academy, Commander Wesley A. Brown, and the historian Ray O. MacColl, reviewed the circumstances surrounding Flipper's discharge and issued an Honorable discharge in his name. In 1977, through the efforts of Mr. H. Minton Francis, the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense (Equal Opportunity), the U.S. Military Academy dedicated a memorial bust and alcove in the cadet library in honor of Lt. Flipper on the 100th anniversary of his graduation.



Pen & Ink Sketch by Frederic Remington

Spanish-American War (1898)

When the battleship Maine sank in Havana Harbor in February 1898, twenty-two black sailors went to the bottom with the crew. In the patriotic fervor which followed, some black leaders argued that blacks could win respect and improve their status by participating in the conflict. Many black Americans, however, expressed sympathy with the Cuban rebels who were fighting for their independence from Spain.

Among the troops mobilized for what proved to be a ten-week war, were the 9th and 10th Cavalry and the 24th and 25th Infantry regiments. From the first, these units were in the forefront of the fighting.

Since the regular army only had roughly 28,000 troops in 1898, the government soon called for volunteers. Congress authorized the activation of ten regiments of black troops, but only four were actually formed -- the 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th United States Volunteers. None saw combat due to the short duration of the war.

Although blacks were still barred from state militia units, several states permitted blacks to organize volunteer units and to enter service. Among these were the Third Alabama, Third North Carolina, Sixth Virginia, Ninth Ohio, Eighth Illinois and Twenty-third Kansas regiments. Some of these units had black officers, which perturbed many military leaders as blacks were still considered unfit for leadership positions.

Once in Cuba, of all the black units raised, only the four black Regular regiments saw combat. The 10th Cavalry garnered honors at the Battle of Las Guasimas and at El Caney. The 25th also fought at El

Caney and the 24th helped in the assault on San Juan Hill.

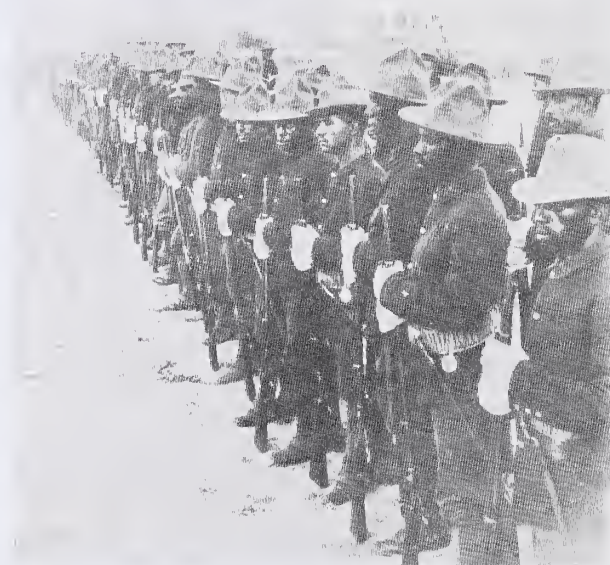
The war closed quickly and by the time the 8th Illinois, 3rd North Carolina, and 23rd Kansas arrived, only garrison duty befell them.

White American citizens did not know quite how to react to the returning black veterans. Some were met with speeches and parades. A few were assaulted and lynched.

A popular song of the day seems to summarize the story of the black soldiers in Cuba:

"Hats Off to the Boys Who Made Good"

"The millionaire clubmen, the 'dudes' they would dub them, They said that the coon boys would quit, But the hills of San Juan, they were the first to come on, Did they fight for our flag? Are they it?"



Black veterans of the Spanish-American War

World War I (1914-1918)

When war broke out in Europe in 1914, most Americans were concerned with problems at home. There were serious social, economic, and educational disparities between most black and white Americans. Full citizenship was still an issue of importance to black Americans. By 1917, however, public interest in the war in Europe had grown.

Within the regular army, the 9th and 10th Cavalry, plus the 24th and 25th Infantry, were still in the West. The Indian Campaigns were over but the Mexican Punitive Expedition against Poncho Villa and border patrol kept these black troops busy. They were not to see overseas service during the war in Europe even though they were probably the best trained and most experienced troops in the army.

As in previous wars, the burden of staffing the expanding military structure fell on the militia and on draftees. Also as in previous wars, the black community had to agitate and pressure for a role. The military establishment lacked a policy for utilization of black manpower in the war. Integrated units were ruled out as a matter of policy and age old questions of black fighting qualities were again raised. Eventually, two black divisions were formed, the 92nd and the 93rd. Neither received its full complement of combat support or support units. In fact, the 93rd was limited to four infantry regiments; three National Guard units and one comprised of draftees. When they arrived overseas, they were assigned to French divisions by General Pershing and they fought with French weapons, under French leadership until the end of the war.

The 92nd was formed entirely from black draftees. From the be-

ginning, there were troubles. Strict racial segregation was practiced and facilities set aside for training of black troops were severely limited. Part of the Division trained at Camp Funston, Kansas. While there, a black soldier tried to enter a theater in nearby Manhattan and was denied entry, even though Kansas law prohibited discrimination. When General Charles C. Ballou, the division commander, learned of the incident he issued a bulletin in which he chastised his soldiers for starting trouble. He also said:

"The Division Commander repeats that the success of the Division, with all that success implies, is dependent upon the good will of the public. That public is nine-tenths white. White men made the Division, and they can break it just as easily if it becomes a trouble maker."

An uproar of protest flowed from the black community. Two months later, the division hurriedly left for France, poorly trained and poorly led. Once in France, the Division gathered a reputation as inept and it could do no right.

The bulk of black draftees saw service in labor battalions, stevedore companies, and depot brigades. Almost one-third of all labor troops in the Army were black. The General Staff believed that since most blacks had been manual laborers in civilian life, they should be laborers in the Army. Black service troops received little or no combat training because the "poorer class of backwoods negro has not the mental stamina and moral sturdiness to put him in the line" against more highly educated and trained German soldiers. Consequently, when black draftees reported for active duty,

they were given fatigue uniforms and immediately put on work details, and the white draftees were not assigned to labor work.

Among the first American troops to arrive in France in 1917, were several hundred black stevedores. This pioneer unit and the others which followed, performed prodigious feats on the docks and in the warehouses, often working day and night. Soon known as Services of Supply (S.O.S.) units, these black soldiers provided the core of the growing logistics system on the Continent. Although their hard work earned official praise, it did not warrant promotion or reassignment. Blacks were limited to all ranks corporal and below, their officers were also white, and combat and combat support roles were denied them.

When the first black combat troops arrived in France in December, 1917, there was some controversy as to what to do with them. Some leaders wanted to convert the four infantry regiments to S.O.S. units. Eventually, however, they were "loaned" to the French where they were given French rifles, helmets and other gear, including rations; although their uniform remained U.S. issue.

Three months after its arrival, the 369th Infantry joined the French 4th Army at the front. It stayed in the trenches for 191 days, the longest front line service of any American regiment. During that period, the regiment, as a unit as well as over 170 of its men and officers, was awarded the French Croix de Guerre or the Legion of Honor for

gallantry in action. The Germans called them "Hell Fighters", they called themselves "Black Rattlers."

The remainder of the 93rd Division arrived in France piecemeal, some six months after the 369th. The 370th, 371st and 372nd regiments all saw extensive action and garnered many awards. The division never fought as a unit. The 92nd Division saw less extensive combat. Since it was a part of the American Expeditionary Force, it fought as a unit.

Over 400,000 blacks served in uniform during World War I. Of these, approximately 10% were assigned to combat units, the remainder to stevedore, depot, and other laborer units. Despite segregation and discriminatory assignments, over 1300 blacks were commissioned as officers (less than 1% of all officers), most as 2nd or 1st Lieutenants, but some as Captains. The highest ranking black officer, COL Charles Young had been forcibly retired at the beginning of the war for medical reasons. Some people suggested that given his seniority and the expanding size of the Army, he was cashiered in order to prevent his being promoted to brigadier general. Three other black officers achieved field grade rank during the war; two in the 370th Infantry and one in the 9th Cavalry which did not see overseas action.

Although there was obvious discriminatory treatment of blacks, and particularly of black officers, World War I saw the largest number of blacks in commissioned grades since the entry of blacks into the Army.

The Black Swallow of Death

Although only 10% of all black Americans who served during World War I experienced combat, those who did served in all branches except aviation. One black American did see service as a combat fighter pilot in World War I, Eugene Jacques Bullard. Bullard was born and raised in the United States but emigrated at an early age to England and later to France in an attempt to escape discrimination. While in England he worked in various laboring jobs and trained as a prize fighter. He eventually became a professional fighter and fought all over Europe and the Middle East.

When war broke out in Europe in 1914, he enlisted in the French Foreign Legion. One of the regiments with which he served was known as the "Swallows of Death" and he became the "black swallow."

Having suffered serious wounds at the front, Bullard volunteered for service in the newly formed aviator corps. He was accepted and took pilot training. Upon graduation, he won a \$1,000 bet from an American who felt blacks were incapable of learning to fly and joined his unit at the front. He flew many combat missions and is credited by some with downing two German planes, although neither is recorded in his official records.

When flying, Bullard's plane was marked with a heart pierced by an arrow with the motto: "All Blood Runs Red."

Though he eventually married and returned to the United States during World War II, his exploits have been generally ignored in this country.



Eugene Jacques Bullard

The Interim Years (1919-1941)

When the war ended on November 11, 1918, political pressures began to bring the troops home. Most combat troops came home as soon as transportation could be arranged and gathered. Service troops, particularly blacks, remained to clean up the battlefields, tear down the unneeded fortifications, and dismantle military installations. It was backbreaking, dirty, dangerous work but it was performed with little complaint.

Upon returning to the United States, black veterans found that little had changed. Jim Crow laws were rampant and several veterans from the South were assaulted by white crowds and stripped of their uniforms at railway stations. One white speaker in New Orleans was quoted as saying:

"You niggers were wondering how you are going to be treated after the war. Well, I'll tell you, you are going to be treated exactly like you were before the war; this is a white man's country and we expect to rule it."

The year 1919 saw an increase of lynchings and a renewal of the Ku Klux Klan. Race riots broke out across the country during the summer. Blacks were blamed for the violence as whites fought to suppress veterans infected with "foreign ideas and by foreign women".

Many people in the War Department felt that blacks should be removed from the peacetime army. Based upon reports submitted by white officers, allegations of poor performance by black troops in combat were circulated and charges of cowardice were common. In 1924, the Army War College submitted a SECRET

report to the Army Chief of Staff which stated as fact the inferiority of the black man and argued for limited use of blacks in future mobilizations. Resentment grew among many white officers, and it was argued that the imposition of black troops on the Army by politicians should not be allowed to happen again.

During the 1930's the American public expressed little interest in the military generally and in black soldiers particularly. Blacks were confined to the four black regiments which had existed prior to the war, and even those units were maintained at greatly reduced strength.

Other War Department "studies" stressed the poor leadership qualities of black officers and argued for their removal. Blacks could fight, it was conceded, but only when led and motivated by whites. By 1939 there were only slightly more than 3600 blacks in the Army and five black officers, three of whom were chaplains.

As fascism grew in Europe, black Americans watched with alarm. They particularly objected to the racist doctrines of Nazism and were resentful of Hitler's snubs of Jesse Owens at the 1936 Berlin Olympics.

In 1939, the Army created two new black units, the 47th and 48th Quartermaster regiments. War was coming again, but the racist assumptions of 1917 had not been overcome. When the Selective Service System was initiated in 1940, blacks were registered, but when induction began, the black induction rate was lower than that for whites.

As in the regular Army, black participation in the National Guard in the interim years was limited.

The 369th Infantry still existed in New York as did the 372nd Infantry and the 184th. In October 1940, the War Department announced that the strength of blacks in the Army would be limited to their proportion of the general populace in the U.S. (approximately 10%).

Thus, on the eve of another World War, there were twelve black units and several small detachments in the Regular Army. They were:

24th Infantry Regiment
25th Infantry Regiment

9th Cavalry Regiment
10th Cavalry Regiment
349th Field Artillery Regiment
41st Engineers
31st Quartermaster Regiment
47th Quartermaster Regiment
48th Quartermaster Regiment
76th Coast Artillery
77th Coast Artillery
1st Chemical Company (Decon.)
Field Artillery School Detachment
Army War College Detachment
Engineer School Detachment
Medical Detachment, U.S.M.A.
Medical Detachment, Fort Huachuca

World War II (1941-1945)

Over 2.5 million blacks registered for the draft in World War II. Of that number, approximately half served in one of the four major services. In none of the services, however, did the black participation rate reach the 10% quota set in 1940; most had from 8-9% blacks in their ranks. Policies on utilization of blacks differed sufficiently in each service so that separate discussions are necessary. A brief overview follows:

Army

Almost three-fourths of all blacks to see military service in World War II were in the Army. The black percentage of total strength varied from 5.9% at the time of Pearl Harbor to a high 8.7% in September 1944.

Army policies on the utilization of blacks in World War I were generally continued in World War II. Blacks were used principally in combat support, constituting 15.5% of all such units and only 2.8% of all combat arms. Even within the combat support branches, blacks were clustered in Quartermaster units (45.6%) and in Transportation units (32.3%).

Army leaders argued that the Army was not a laboratory for social experimentation. Therefore, black participation should be limited and should be in segregated units. Politically, however, this was an indefensible policy. While blacks were allowed to enter previously closed military specialties, segregation remained.

The two black Divisions from World War I were reactivated. The 92nd Division was eventually committed to the Mediterranean Theater of Operations. It saw limited ser-

vice and was tagged with the label of being cowardly. This label was the result of actions which occurred in late 1944 and early 1945 when certain battalion-size units failed to seize or hold their objectives. The resultant controversy overlooked the fine service of the rest of the Division, particularly its artillery and support units. The performance of the 92nd is more appropriately evaluated by its overall record in World War II. Over twelve thousand decorations and citations were eventually awarded to individuals in the 92nd; including two Distinguished Service Crosses, sixteen Legion of Merit Awards, ninety-five Silver Stars, and nearly eleven hundred Purple Hearts. In addition, the 92nd also suffered over three thousand casualties in six months of fighting. Despite these sacrifices and accomplishments, blanket generalizations about the poor fighting qualities of black soldiers were made. Though based on the alleged performance of a few, these accusations were unjustifiably applied to the entire division.

The 93rd Division was assigned to the Pacific but never fought as a whole unit and saw very little combat. In addition, the 2nd Cavalry Division was created in 1943 and sent to North Africa. However, once overseas it was deliberately disbanded and its members reassigned into laborer units.

Several small, non-divisional units, were also created. Perhaps the most well known was the 761st Tank Battalion which fought in the European Theater of Operations. It was the only all-black unit to win the Presidential Unit Citation. Fighting for 183 continuous days, the unit conducted over 30 major assaults. Although nominated for an award six times, between 1945 and 1976, it did not receive the award until 1978.

As a result of the German's Ardennes offensive in late 1944, some 2500 blacks were organized into separate platoons and assigned to all white companies in the First and Seventh Armies. This was the only example of integrated units in the Army during World War II.

Navy

Blacks were prohibited from enlisting in the Navy after World War I. It was not until 1932 that blacks were permitted to enlist and then only in the messman's branch which was filled predominately with Filipinos. Only in 1942 did the Navy decide to accept volunteers for general service in all branches. Even then, blacks were prohibited from going to sea and were restricted to assignments ashore or in small harbor or coastal craft. The 10% quota established in 1940 was applied to each ship and was used as a ceiling, not a floor, for black participation.

In 1943, two ships, a destroyer escort (USS Mason) and a submarine chaser (PC 1264) were staffed with all black crews. Initially all officers and petty officers were white, but the objective was to replace the white petty officers with blacks as soon as possible. This was accomplished within six months of commission on the sub chaser, but was never achieved on the destroyer. The first black officer in the Navy did not report for duty until 1945 and he was assigned to the submarine chaser with the all-black crew.

Despite this segregation, almost 150,000 blacks served in the Navy during World War II. However, few saw combat.

Army Air Force (AAF)

Prior to and during World War II, blacks in the military were segregated and generally assigned to service

units. Stereotypes persisted that blacks were incapable of performing well in flying roles. Consequently, utilization of blacks in the AAF was not seriously considered, nor deemed appropriate by senior military leaders.

During the 1939-40 period, Congress enacted three laws that eventually would have significant impact on the status of blacks in the AAF. On 27 June 1939, the Civilian Pilot Training Act was passed. The purpose of this act was to create a reserve of civilian pilots to be called in case of war. Blacks participated in Civilian Pilot Training programs at Tuskegee Institute, Howard University, Hampton Institute, North Carolina A&T, Delaware State, West Virginia State College, Lincoln University of Missouri, and Harlem Airport in Chicago. Public Law 18, enacted on 3 April 1939, called for civilian schools to be contracted to conduct primary flying training for the AAF, and required that at least one of the schools train black aviators. Finally, the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 prohibited discrimination because of color and race in induction, selection and training. Each of these legislative mandates represented significant benchmarks in efforts to increase black participation in military service.

On 16 January 1941, the 99th Pursuit Squadron was formed and the Tuskegee Training Program was born. The Director of Aviation Training at Tuskegee was advised by the Commanding General of the Southeastern Air Corps Training Center at Maxwell Field, Alabama that the success of Negro youth in the AAF would be predicated upon the success of the 'Tuskegee Experiment.' Even though the bulk of publicity was focused on the formation of the Pursuit Squadron at Tuskegee, the overwhelming preponderance of blacks were assigned to support units in the AAF. By mid-1941, there were 2,250 blacks in the AAF; by March

1942, there were 77,500 blacks; and by mid-1944, 145,000 blacks had been inducted into the AAF.

By 1943, the AAF had organized not only the all-black 99th Pursuit Squadron, which arrived in the Mediterranean Theater that year, but also the 332nd Fighter Group. Additionally, plans were being implemented to form the 477th Bombardment Group, which along with some veterans of the 332nd subsequently formed the 477th Composite Group in 1945. However, Tuskegee remained the single training facility for black pilots until its closing in 1946. The nearly 1,000 Tuskegee Airmen, were powerful symbols of what blacks could achieve given a modicum of opportunity and the necessary training.

During World War II, black officers were not always assigned according to their background and training. The resulting excess of non-rated black officers at Tuskegee without a mission contributed to an overcrowded facility which became detrimental to morale. Historians generally give credit to Colonel Noel Parrish, Commander of Tuskegee Field from 1942 to 1946, for having improved morale by reducing the amount of segregation and overcrowding and improving relations with both blacks and whites in the town of Tuskegee.



An all-black crew operate a 40mm Bofers AA gun in France. U.S. Army Photograph SC-198659

The 99th Pursuit Squadron and the 332nd Fighter Group were the only black air units that saw combat during WWII. The 99th flew its first combat mission in June of 1943, and later participated in the battle of Sicily and the invasion of Italy. The 332nd, comprised of the 100th, the 301st, and the 302nd squadrons, entered combat in January of 1944, and was eminently successful in accomplishing its assigned missions of dive-bombing and strafing under the command of then Lt Col B.O. Davis, Jr. Following a change in its mission to strategic bomber escort, the 99th was added to the 332nd in July 1944.



A gun crew of Battery B 598th Field Artillery Battalion in Italy U.S. Army Photograph SC-224665-1



Members of the 93rd Division on a jungle trail in the South Pacific U.S. Army Photograph SC-196151

THESE ARE OUR FINEST,
MEN OF THE 99th FIGHTER SQUADRON
AND THE 332nd FIGHTER GROUP...
BRAVE BLACK MEN WHO HAD TO
ENDURE THE RIGORS OF PILOT
TRAINING AND GO ON TO WIN
THEIR WINGS AGAINST ALL THE
FORCES OF HOME-GROWN BIGOTRY.
THEY ARE THE BRAVE, THE VALIANT,
THE LONELY EAGLES. THE REST IS
A MATTER OF RECORD... A THRILL-
PACKED SAGA OF BOLD BLACK PILOTS
WHO FOUGHT AGAINST NAZIS AND
FASCISM IN THE SKIES OF NORTH
AFRICA AND EUROPE TO HELP SAVE
OUR NATION...
THESE ARE OUR FINEST,
TOTAL NUMBER OF PILOTS
GRADUATED AT TUSKEGEE 992
AWARDS: LEGION OF MERIT, SILVER STAR,
PURPLE HEART, DISTINGUISHED FLYING
CROSS, SOLDIER MEDAL, BRONZE STAR,
AIR MEDAL AND CLUSTERS
TOTAL KILLED IN ACTION 66
WORLD WAR II 1941-1945

ROY E. LA GRONE
TUSKEGEE AIRMAN, S. 179



MEN OF THE 99TH FIGHTER SQUADRON AND THE 332ND FIGHTER GROUP by Roy LaGrone

U.S. Air Force Art Collection C-6
From 1941-1945, 1-100-10

The 477th Bombardment Group was activated in 1943, but never saw combat and was not manned fully until March 1945. Also activated in 1943 was the 553rd Fighter Replacement Training Squadron to provide replacement pilots for the 332nd. Both units began training at Selfridge Field, Michigan, but because of an unhealthy racial atmosphere in the local area the 477th was moved to Godman Field, Kentucky, then to Freeman Field, Indiana, while the 552rd was moved to Walterboro, S.C., where it was eventually inactivated, its members transferred to form a squadron of the Air Base Group. From its inception, the 477th was plagued with problems. When activated the unit had no established cadre to break-in new pilots and had no navigators/bombardiers to man crews. Within one year the 477th had 38 squadron or unit moves. In June 1945, the 477th was redesignated as the 477th Composite Group.

The 99th Pursuit Squadron, redesignated the 99th Fighter Squadron in May 1942, earned three Distinguished Unit Citations during World War II. It participated in campaigns in Sicily, Anzio, Normandy, the Rhineland, Po Valley and Rome-Arno among others. Perhaps its biggest

claim to fame was that its pilots were responsible for destroying five enemy aircraft in less than four minutes, a feat never before accomplished.

The 332nd Fighter Group also earned a Distinguished Unit Citation and approximately 1000 individual awards and decorations. This Group participated in the Rome-Arno, Northern and Southern France Campaigns as well as the Normandy, Rhineland, Romania, and American Theater Campaigns. It first saw combat in February 1944. Its most notable achievement was destruction of a German Navy destroyer by fighter aircraft, again a feat that had never before been accomplished. Moreover, it is reputed to have been the only bomber escort group never to lose a bomber to enemy fighters during the war.

Flying, in succession, the P-40, P-39, P-47, and P-51 fighter aircraft, the Tuskegee Airmen compiled the following illustrious combat record:

- 261 Aircraft Destroyed
- 148 Aircraft Damaged
- 15,533 Sorties
- 1,578 Missions
- 66 KIA
- 95 Distinguished Flying Crosses Awarded
- 450 Pilots Sent Overseas

The 'Tuskegee Experiment' was a tremendous success, and proved that blacks could perform well in both leadership and combat roles. The experience of the AAF during World War II necessitated that the military review its policies on the utilization of black service members. Confrontation, discussion, and coordination with both black and white groups led AAF leaders to the conclusion that active commitment, leadership, and equal opportunity produced a more cost-effective, viable military force. In 1948, President Harry Truman signed an Executive Order on equality of treatment and opportunity in the military, due in no small part to the successes of the Tuskegee Airmen.

Marine Corps

Blacks did not enter the Marine Corps until August 1942 and then only in segregated units. Most were placed in service units - depot companies and ammunition companies. Only two combat units were created, the 51st and 52nd Defense Battalions. Although 75% of the 17,000

black Marines served overseas, few saw combat.

Black Officers

As in previous wars, the military approached the subject of black officers with some caution. Black leadership qualities were considered questionable. In 1940, when the War Department established the 10% quota for blacks, it opened officer candidate schools in addition to previously opened R.O.T.C. units to blacks. Surprisingly, these schools were integrated, although the AAF retained its segregated training site at Tuskegee. In addition, five blacks graduated from West Point during the war, none from Annapolis.

Production of black officers was very slow and it was not until 1942 that appreciable numbers of blacks were graduated. Even at that, black officers constituted less than 1.9% of all officers in the military by 1945. None achieved general officer or flag rank during the war.

Ships Named After Black Americans

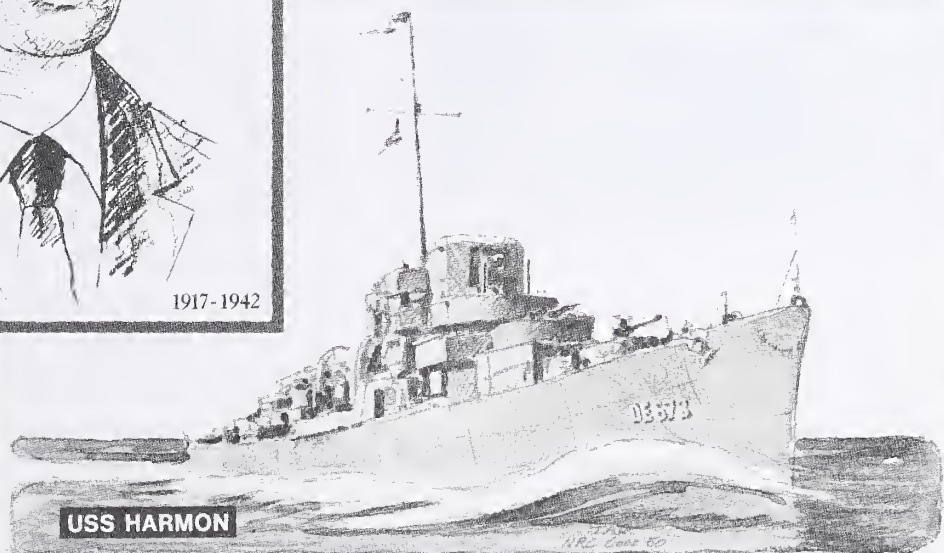
The practice of naming ships after prominent persons has had long standing in the Navy. World War II saw the first ships to be named after black Americans. On July 10, 1943 the U.S.S. Harmon, a destroyer escort was launched. It was named after Mess Attendant First Class Leonard R. Harmon, a recipient of the Navy Cross in 1942.

In addition, eighteen Liberty Ships, the famous mass produced merchant ships, were named after prominent blacks; fourteen after historic personages and four after black merchant seamen killed on active duty with the Merchant Marine. Also, four Victory ships were named after black colleges. The ships were:

The Booker T. Washington
The George Washington Carver
The Frederick Douglass
The John Merrick
The Robert L. Vann
The Paul Laurence Dunbar
The James Weldon Johnson
The John Hope
The John H. Murphy
The Toussant L'Ouverture
The Robert S. Abbott
The Harriet Tubman
The Edward A. Savoy
The Bert Williams
The James Kyron Walker
The Robert J. Banks
The William Cox
The George A. Lawson
The Fisk Victory
The Tuskegee Victory
The Howard Victory
The Lane Victory



BLACK HISTORY
Leonard R Harmon
STEWARD



Interim Years (1945-1950)

With the end of World War II, strong political forces once again arose to demand rapid demobilization of the armed forces. In addition, a liberalization of the military's segregationist policies was sought. Several studies were undertaken, principally by the Army, to examine extant racial policies. In October, 1945 a three person board under LTG A.C. Gillem, Jr. was directed to "prepare a policy for the use of authorized Negro manpower potential during the postwar period." In November, 1945 the Gillem Board issued a report for comment and in January 1946 issued a supplementary report.

The Board concluded that in previous wars, adequate plans for utilization of blacks had not been developed and that what policies had existed were not implemented. It recommended a wider use of blacks in all occupational specialties but under existing quotas.

The controversy generated by the Gillem Board report, plus several studies undertaken by the War College, resulted in a second board, under LTG S.J. Chamberlin. It was directed to review progress under existing policies for utilizing blacks and to recommend any new policies considered appropriate. In February 1950 the Board reported that the 10% quota should be maintained as well as segregated units; in other words business as usual.

In the midst of these internal studies, President Truman issued Executive Order 9981 on July 26, 1948. This order established a policy that there be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin. The order also established a Presidential Committee to examine racial policies within the armed services and to determine how best to implement the Presidential policy.

Chaired by Charles Fahy, the committee began its study in early 1949 at the same time that an unofficial civilian group known as the Committee against Jim Crow in Military Service and Training issued its final report. In May 1950, the Fahy Committee issued its final report which examined two basic questions: (1) are blacks mentally and technically qualified to hold all military occupations?; and (2) should segregated units be maintained? The committee concluded that military efficiency would be improved with full utilization of blacks and that segregated units were an inefficient use of black resources.

These studies plus the rapidly changing policies being developed by the military reflected the changing social conditions which demanded full citizenship for blacks and an end to blatant racism. Implementation of these developments was delayed by the Korean Conflict.

Korean Conflict (1950-1953)

By late 1949 or early 1950, each of the military services had adopted policies of equality of treatment, although full integration of units was not always the objective. The Air Force, for example, chose to retain some black units, but agreed to maintain no strength quota. Implementation, however, had not been effected.

Units initially committed to Korea included racially segregated components, such as the all-black 24th Infantry Regiment, as well as independent black battalions. By 1951, however, those units designated as black were approaching full strength. The Selective Service system was continuing to provide black replacements who would soon have no place to go. In addition, some white units were understrength. As a result, blacks were individually assigned to previous white units in order to make maximum use of available manpower. Some whites were also assigned to all-black units.

Some commanders objected to this procedure, however, and attempted to retain the old policy, or to create pockets of small all-black units within their commands. The result was that by mid-1951, while blacks constituted 13.5% of the total U.S. strength, 80% of all black soldiers in Korea were assigned to all-black units and almost two thirds of those in service support units.

Both during and after the fighting, there was much controversy about the utility and contribution of black combat troops. Prominent among these disputes were negative reports circulated about the performance of the 24th Infantry Regiment. It was alleged to have panicked and withdrawn from forward positions on several occasions in mid-1950. Satisfactory performance later in the war, plus positive contributions made by black units as well as black soldiers in white units, could not erase the stigma of the allegations about the 24th.

Although the Korean Conflict was principally a land action, there were significant contributions by air and naval forces. A landmark in naval aviation occurred with the appointment of Ensign Jesse L. Brown as the first black naval aviator. He was killed on a combat mission in December, 1950 and posthumously awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross and Air Medal for his actions. In addition, Frederick C. Branch became the first black to be commissioned in the Marine Corps.



Interim Years (1954-1960)

The record of black troops in Korea was basically no better nor worse than that of white troops. If anything, it should be noted that withdrawals by white units were not attributed to racial characteristics. During the war, the Army had initiated a study on the effects of segregation and integration in the Army. Conducted by the Operations Research Office of Johns Hopkins University, "Project Clear" studied the situation both in Korea and in the United States. Their study, released in 1954, concluded that racially segregated units limited overall Army effectiveness, while integration enhanced effectiveness. Further the study noted that integration throughout the Army was feasible and that a quota on black participation was unnecessary. With this and other studies as a further prod, desegregation in the military continued. By 1954 the last all-black unit had been disbanded and

black enlistments grew with elimination of the quota system.

Vestiges of discrimination remained, however. Some on-post clubs remained segregated as were other post facilities. Off-post housing was often segregated and the issue was not addressed by military authorities. The military justice system was disproportionately hard on blacks and off-post discrimination in services hindered blacks in education and business.

Attempts to address some of these problems began in June 1961 with issuance of the first DOD directive designed to eliminate off-post discrimination. By 1963, post commanders were made responsible for developing equal treatment in both on-base and off-base situations. Implementation of this policy, however, was severely hampered by the war in Vietnam.

Vietnam Era (1960-1973)



When U.S. forces were first committed to the fighting in Vietnam, only regulars were used. However, as fighting escalated, it was decided to use draftees rather than to activate Reserve or National Guard units in order to meet troop needs. The result was that disproportionate numbers of blacks entered the armed forces, constituting some 16% of all those drafted and only 11% of the national population. This was primarily due to the inability of many blacks to receive deferments and the underrepresentation of blacks on local draft boards.

Once in the military, blacks tended to stay longer than whites and to volunteer at higher rates for elite units, such as airborne or air cavalry units. Consequently, blacks assumed a higher proportion of the casualties than might be expected, given the fact that units in the military were truly integrated for

the first time.

Expectations of black service members were heightened by legislated civil rights gains in the civilian community throughout the mid and late 1960's. Blatant off-base discrimination gave way to new, more subtle forms of discrimination, both on-post and off-post. The heightened racial pride initiated by the "black power" movement generated increased sensitivity to problems facing blacks throughout the military. Not all situations, however, were handled peacefully, as violence at various military installations indicated; particularly in the late 1960's and into the early 1970's.



Post-Vietnam Era (1974-1980)

Post Vietnam Era (1974-1984)

Since the draft was terminated at the end of 1972 and the induction authority of the President was curtailed in July of 1973, continuous discussions have revolved around the quality of the All-Volunteer Force (AVF). When then Presidential candidate, Richard Nixon, first proposed to end conscription if elected, there was also an outcry that an AVF would jeopardize national security.

By 1970, the Department of Defense had taken several steps to establish equal opportunity within the military establishment. What follows is a summary of the major developments in equal opportunity since that time.

The Department of Defense Equal Opportunity Program, (DoD Directive 1100.15), mandated an equal opportunity program for all DoD Components. Additionally, the Directive tasked each Service to develop Affirmative Action Plans, and gave commanders authority to deny on-base access to any organizations or activities that did not practice equal opportunity. Finally, the Directive authorized commanders to impose sanctions when discriminatory treatment toward military members or their dependents was proven because of race, color, ethnic group or national origin.

The Task Force on the the Administration of Military Justice was formed in 1972 to identify the nature and extent of racial discrimination in the administration of military justice in the Armed Forces. The Task Force was also chartered to make recommendations to the Secretary of Defense regarding appropriate actions to eliminate existing deficiencies and enhance the opportunity for equal justice for every American serviceman and servicewoman. The final report of the Task Force stated that the elimi-

nation of systemic discrimination was the key to resolving and eliminating racial and ethnic discrimination within the Armed Forces. The Task Force also recommended formal guidance be published to establish a basic curriculum and a minimum number of hours for the Race Relations Education Program, and that instruction be provided to all military personnel. By 1974, the Race Relations Education Program was in full force throughout the Department of Defense.

Another important part of DoD's Post - Vietnam push for equal opportunity was the publication of DoD Directive 1322.11, "Department of Defense Education in Race Relations for Armed Forces Personnel." This Directive established a Race Relations Education Board (RREB) whose mission was to develop overall policy guidance for the program. The RREB is chaired by the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower. Membership includes each Service Assistant Secretary for Manpower and Reserve Affairs; the Deputy Assistant Secretaries of Defense for Guard/Reserve Manpower and Personnel; Military Personnel and Force Management; and Equal Opportunity and Safety Policy. Additionally, each Service Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel is a member as are the Chief, National Guard Bureau and the Chief, Office of Civil Rights, United States Coast Guard. The RREB was renamed the DoD Human Relations Education Board in 1984.

Department of Defense Directive 1322.1 also established the Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI) to train Armed Forces personnel as instructors in race relations. The instructors, in turn, were to train all other military members. The sole focus of the DRRI training program was achievement of racial harmony. At first, emphasis was placed on interpersonal relations at the small unit

level; however, training was later broadened to include women's issues, Anti-Semitism, and an understanding of minority groups. After an extensive review of the race relations and equal opportunity programs in DoD, DRRI was reorganized in 1978. It was renamed the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) and its mission was expanded in July 1979 to:

- a. Conduct training for DoD military and civilian personnel assigned duties as Equal Opportunity specialists, staff officers and instructors in human/race relations training.

- b. Provide assistance to DoD organizations in developing specific curricula for human/race relations and equal opportunity education and training.

- c. Act as a resource and provide consultant services to DoD activities requesting assistance in equal opportunity matters.

- d. Conduct research to keep the education and training program current, relevant and responsive to changing needs.

- e. Evaluate DEOMI program effectiveness.

These new missions necessitated an expansion of the curriculum to 16 weeks. Major study areas now include:

- a. Individual and Group Behavior
- b. Race/Ethnic Studies and Intergroup Behavior
- c. Aspects of Discrimination
- d. Human/Organizational Behavior
- e. Instructional Skills

The program at DEOMI is continually updated to increase its effectiveness. For example, in 1979, a new course of instruction was added to the DEOMI curriculum. This course,

entitled "Resident/Nonresident Course," is a resident study/correspondence study version of DEOMI's Resident Program and was developed to meet the needs and the unique status of the Reserve and National Guard Specialists in Equal Opportunity. Both the Resident and Resident/Nonresident curricula are structured in an integrated, building-block fashion. The curriculum addresses a broad range of subjects intended to develop the graduate as an Equal Opportunity Specialist capable of assisting in any military-related equal opportunity matter. Since DEOMI opened its doors in 1971, over 7000 students have graduated. Originally started as a seven week program the course now has been expanded to sixteen weeks of intensified study in human relations training. Instruction now is focused on examining institutional discrimination and utilizing equal opportunity consulting skills to assist cognizant commanders.

The Department of Defense recognizes that equal opportunity in housing plays an important role in the retention of personnel. Therefore, it established as policy in 1972, the responsibility of military commanders to oppose discriminatory practices affecting military personnel and their families, and to foster equal opportunity for them, both in the military and surrounding communities.

The objective of the Equal Opportunity in Off-Base Housing Program is the elimination of discrimination against DoD personnel in off-base housing. The goal of the program is to insure that a person meeting ordinary standards of character and financial responsibility is able to obtain local off-base housing without suffering refusal and humiliation because of arbitrary discrimination.

Each major DoD installation has a Housing Referral Office (HRO) that maintains listings of available rental and sale property. These listings are

used as referrals for personnel authorized to live off-base. HROs also maintain listings of all units against which restrictive sanctions have been placed. HROs are also tasked to insure that only nondiscriminatory advertisements of rental or sale units appear in media under control of the command. Finally, HROs are authorized to conduct preliminary validation regarding housing complaints and to report their findings to the local commander.

The DoD Housing Referral Program reflects the commitment of the Secretary of Defense to eliminate discrimination in off-base housing. This program has garnered respect by providing efficient and responsive service in a sensitive and critical area to hundreds of thousands of military personnel and their dependents. This service includes ensuring fair housing practices for all DoD military personnel worldwide and civilian personnel at all overseas locations.

DoD Directive 1100.15, "The Department of Defense Equal Opportunity Program," requires each Component to establish and prepare Affirmative Action Plans (AAP) and to submit annual assessments of progress towards meeting the AAP goals. An affirmative action plan identifies specific areas which are considered as having equal opportunity significance. Affirmative Action Plans are established to quantify goals, timetables and management accountability of equal opportunity objectives. The AAP outlines actions the Components will take to achieve stated objectives. All Components are required to report on ten common subject areas as a part of their AAP:

- Recruiting/Accessions
- Assignment
- Evaluation
- Training
- Promotion
- Discipline
- Separation

- Recognition
- Utilization of Skills
- Discrimination Complaints

In summary, an AAP is a set of specific and result-oriented procedures to which a Component commits itself to apply good faith effort to achieve a desired goal. The primary goal of the AAP is the permanent integration of the concepts of equal opportunity into every aspect of Service life, thereby enhancing combat readiness and mission accomplishment.

In May of 1981, Secretary of Defense Weinberger signed the DoD Human Goals Charter which is the foundation of the Department's Equal Opportunity Program. The signing of the Human Goals Charter reaffirmed the Department's commitment to Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action. This Charter was also signed by the top leadership in the Military Services.

In July of 1981, Secretary of Defense Weinberger signed a memorandum to the Service Secretaries pointing out that effective Equal Opportunity Programs could significantly improve the cohesiveness, readiness and the total defense capability of the nation. The memorandum charged the Service Secretaries to ensure a prompt and impartial investigation of discrimination complaints, including racial and sexual intimidation, discrimination and harassment. This is the cornerstone upon which each Military Department builds its discrimination complaint program. Each Component must ensure that procedures dealing specifically with the resolution of discrimination complaints are published at every level, including the lowest command level, and that each member of the command be fully aware of implementing policies. Equally important, personnel must be assured that complaints can be initiated without fear of intimidation, reprisal, harassment, or embarrassment.

BLACK ENLISTED PERSONNEL AS A PERCENT
OF ALL DOD ENLISTED PERSONNEL 1973 - 1984

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>
1973	14.0
1975	16.1
1977	17.4
1979	21.2
1981	22.1
1983	21.7
1984	21.1

BLACK OFFICERS ON ACTIVE DUTY
FY 71 - 84, BY SERVICE

<u>END FY</u>	<u>ARMY</u>	<u>NAVY</u>	<u>AIR FORCE</u>	<u>MARINE CORPS</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
71	5419	547	2196	273	8435
73	4682	805	2248	372	8107
75	4957	905	2615	570	9047
77	5971	1203	3114	672	10960
79	6601	1437	4088	705	12831
81	7940	1809	4843	732	15324
83	9154	2100	5568	856	17678
84	10174	2147	5714	905	18940



Keeping A Close Watch
by Roderick Schenken
U.S. Army Photograph
CC-109384

BLACK OFFICERS* AS A PERCENT OF ALL
DOD OFFICERS, 1973 - 1984

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>PERCENT</u>
1973	2.5
1975	3.1
1977	3.9
1979	4.7
1981	5.3
1983	5.8
1984	6.2

*Includes Warrant Officers

DISTRIBUTION OF BLACK ACTIVE DUTY FORCES,
SEPTEMBER 30, 1984 DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

<u>OFFICER</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>
O-10	1
O-9	4
O-8	13
O-7	15
O-6	374
O-5	857
O-4	1832
O-3	7863
O-2	3530
O-1	2984

<u>WARRANT</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>
W-4	105
W-3	348
W-2	675
W-1	185

<u>ENLISTED</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>
E-9	2139
E-8	6736
E-7	20890
E-6	47735
E-5	86818
E-4	102137
E-3	68098
E-2	25084
E-1	24644

The multi-faceted approach to achieving equal opportunity has been eminently successful within the Department of Defense. The numbers of equal opportunity formal racial complaints have decreased, and black representation within each Military Service has increased dramatically. As of September 1984, there were approximately 2,100,000 personnel on active duty in the Armed Forces. Of that number, approximately 403,000 were black, comprising 19 percent of the total force. The total for all minorities in the Armed Forces was approximately 562,000 or 26 percent. In 1974, the total population of the Armed Forces was approximately the same size as it was in 1984, however, blacks only numbered 298,000 compared to the 1984 figure of 403,000.

Since 1974, the total percentage of black officers in the Armed Forces has increased from 2.6 to 6.2 percent of all the officers in the DoD. Black enlisted personnel increased from 15.7 percent in 1974 to 21.1 percent of the total enlisted force in 1984. In 1974, there were only 850 black E-9s. In 1984, just ten years later, there were over 2,000 blacks in the grade of E-9, the top enlisted grade in the Armed Forces. The number of E-8s increased from 3,200 in 1974 to slightly over 6,700 in 1984. Finally, the number of E-7s grew from 16,300 to 20,800 during that same timeframe.

Another indicator of equal opportunity can be found in the increase of black senior grade officers. In June 1971, only two of the 1,328 General/Flag officers in DoD were black. By June 1974, that number had increased to 16 of 1,236 or 1.3 percent. By 1980, there were 38 black General/Flag officers of the total 1,101. In September 1984, the total number of General/Flag officers had decreased to 1,077 while the number of black General/Flag officers decreased to 33 (pictures of black Americans who have achieved Flag or General Officer rank in the history of the

United States military are shown in other portions of this publication). The distribution of black General/Flag officers by Service as of 30 September 1984 follows:

Army - 22*
Navy - 2
Marine Corps - 1
Air Force - 8

*Source for the data is the Defense Management Data Center 3030 Report dated September 30, 1984.

Blacks in the National Guard

The National Guard has a proud military heritage dating back to 1636 when the first colonial militia was organized in the north and east regiments of the Massachusetts colony. Since then, the Guard has grown to over 537,383 members today, and shares in the total commitment to our nation's first line of defense.

The National Guard is unique from all other services in that it has two missions, Federal and state. While the defense of the nation is our primary mission, the National Guard has the additional mission of assisting civil authorities in the preservation of life, the protection of property and the maintenance of order.

Because the National Guard is basically a state organization, its history was influenced by various state laws that promoted segregation. Although black Guardmembers distinguished themselves in many major conflicts, the laws and policies of segregation still existed in some states even into the early 60's. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 changed that, and in the early 70's positive efforts began to be made towards equal opportunity in the National Guard. In 1971 when black representation was just over 1 percent, the first affirmative action goals were developed to double the number of blacks the first year. As a result of these and subsequent

affirmative action efforts, the Army National Guard (ARNG) has grown to a total of 26.5 percent minorities (18 percent of whom are black). The Air National Guard (ANG) is now 7.8 percent blacks and 15 percent total minorities.

While minority gains in the ARNG and ANG increase steadily, they have been limited primarily to the enlisted ranks. To meet the goals of minority parity in the officer corps of the Army National Guard, the National Guard Bureau launched a major initiative in 1977 called the Minority Officer Recruiting Effort (MORE); a task force of key National Guard Bureau officials chaired by the Deputy Director, Army National Guard.

The task force has developed a number of programs to increase minority officer accessions. One of the main efforts involve new Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs, including the Simultaneous Membership Program and Early Commissioning Program. Strong efforts are also being made to increase minority participation in the State Officer Candidate School Program.

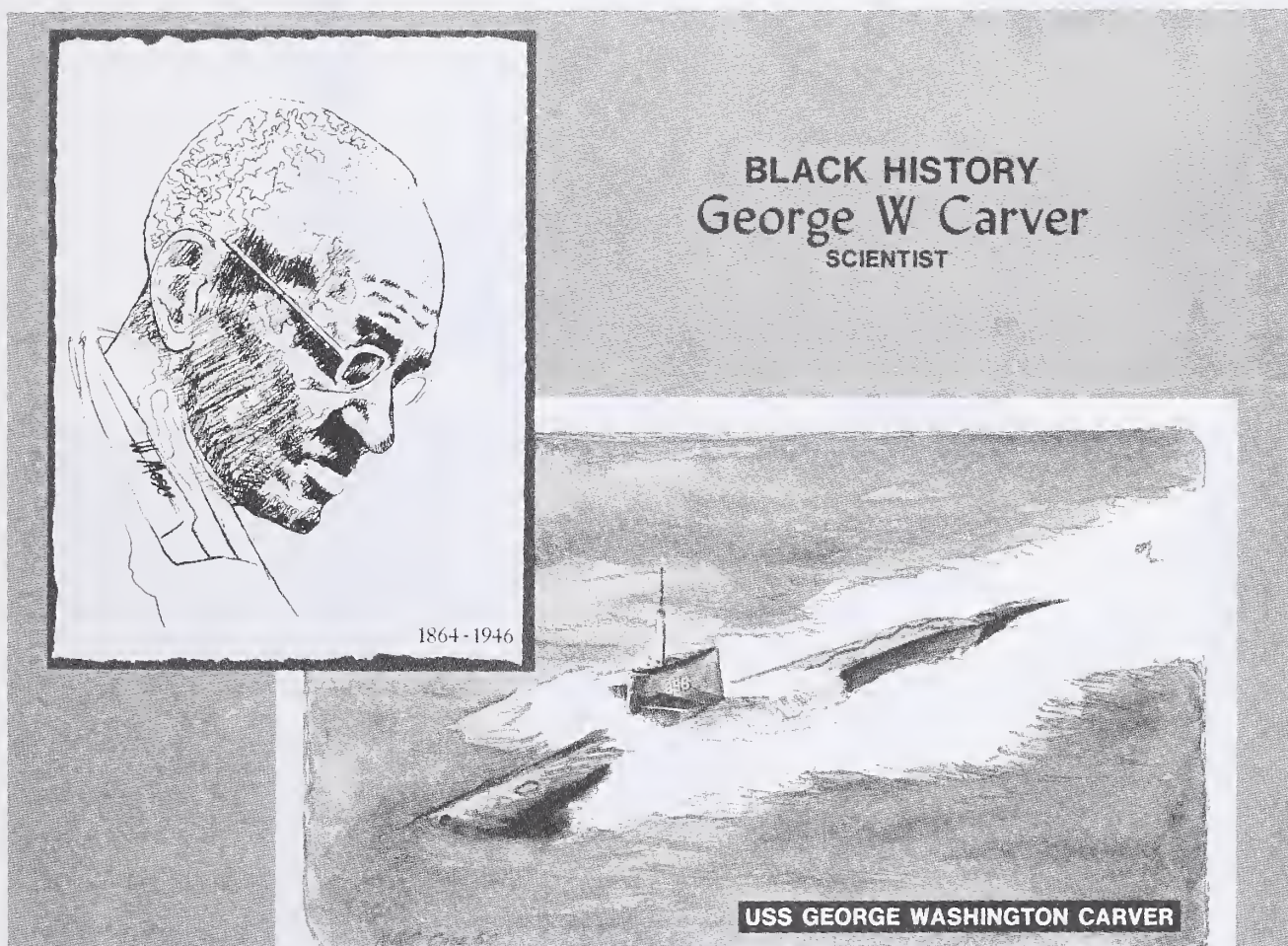
As a result, Army National Guard minority officer accessions have increased dramatically from 2.5 percent to 9.5 percent as of October 1984 and show signs of continued acceleration. Women constitute 7.3 percent of the ARNG, up from 6.6 percent. ANG women increased from 7.8 percent to 10.3 percent in 1984. The continued rise in the participation of minorities and women in the National Guard is attributable to national and local support.

While parity has still not been met nationwide, command emphasis in this area will insure that the positive gains realized during the past years will continue until parity is met.

In addition to the successful efforts described above, the National Guard Bureau, Office of Human Resources manages a system of programmed compliance reviews of each state and territory under Title VI (Federal Financial Assistance Programs). Continuing efforts by DoD to oversee the Title VI compliance posture will help to ensure progress in equal opportunity throughout the National Guard.

Ships Named After Black Americans

In the post-Vietnam period, the Navy has commissioned three ships named for prominent black Americans; two frigates and one nuclear submarine. They are:





1926-1950

BLACK HISTORY
Jesse L Brown
ENSIGN

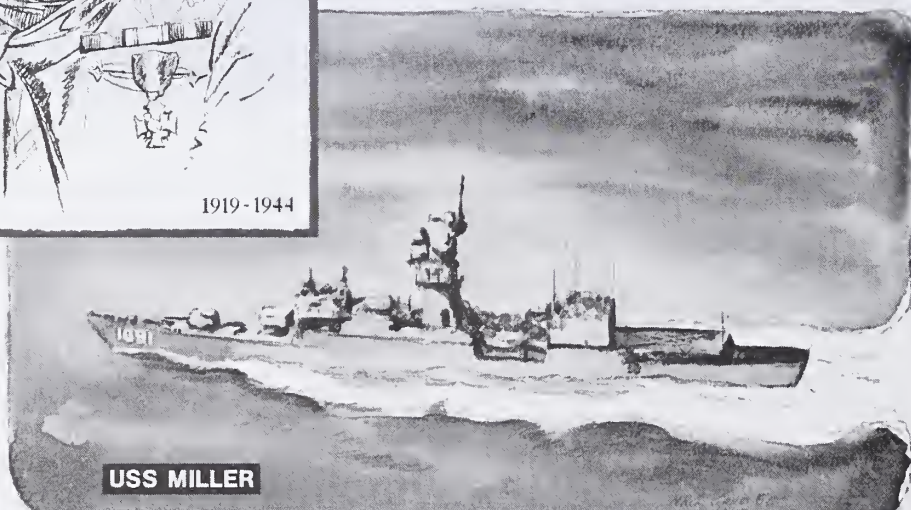


USS JESSE L BROWN



1919-1944

BLACK HISTORY
Dorie Miller
MESS ATTENDANT



USS MILLER

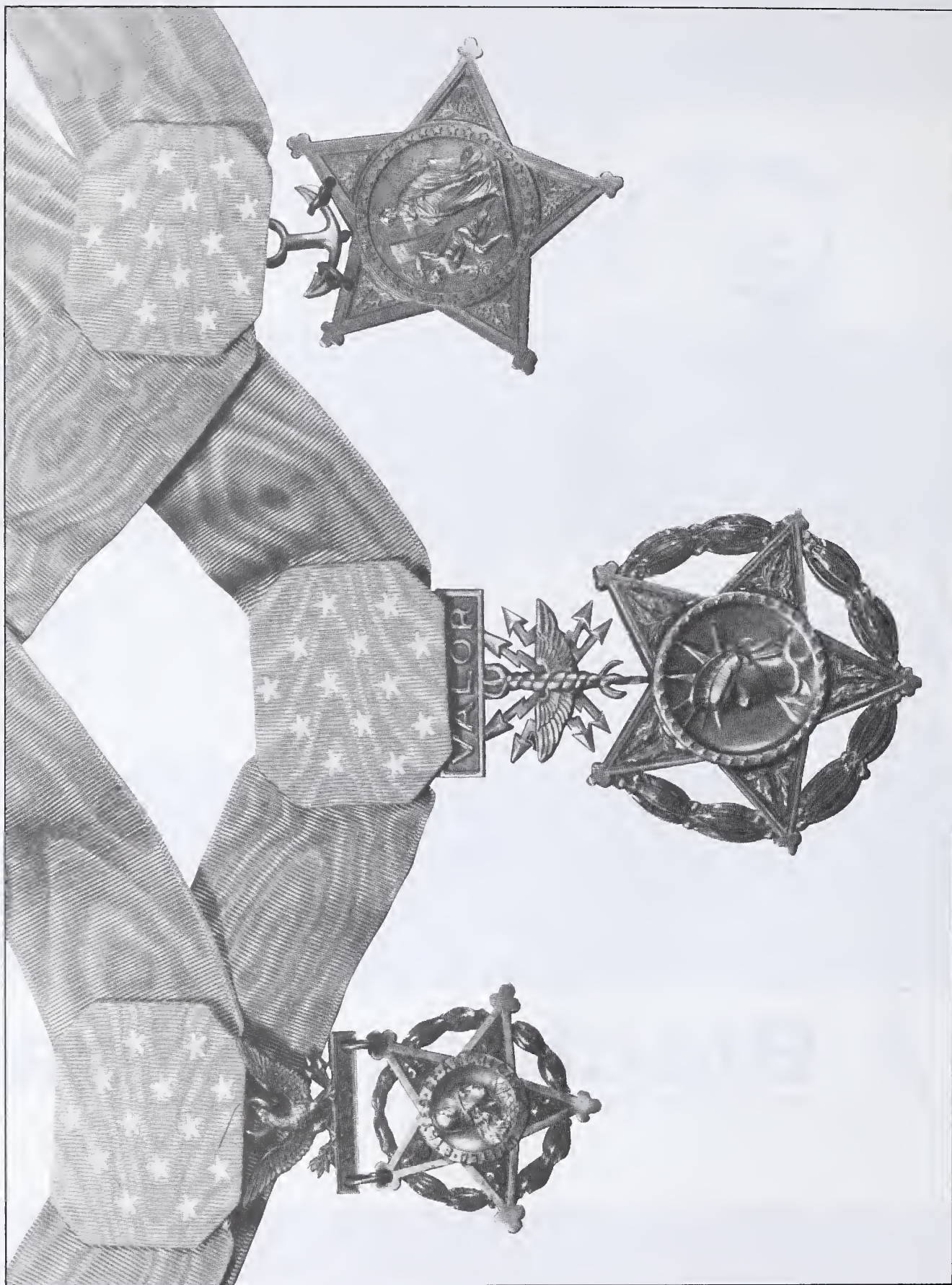






Black American

Recipients of the Medal of Honor



The contemporary Medal of Honor

Introduction

The Medal of Honor is the highest military award for bravery that can be given to any individual in the United States.

Late in 1861, consideration was given to how best to recognize heroic deeds performed by soldiers and sailors. It was believed that no true soldier, sailor, or marine would brag about their own bravery, but that a medal, symbolic of their deeds, would express the Nation's gratitude without words. On December 21, 1861 Congress established a Medal of Honor for enlisted men of the Navy and Marine Corps. On July 12, 1862, similar legislation passed approving a Medal of Honor for the Army. An Amendment passed on March 3, 1863, made officers eligible for both awards and made the provisions for the Medals retroactive to the beginning of the war.

The first medals were presented on March 25, 1863 to the six surviving members of a raiding party sent to sabotage Confederate railroads in 1862. Disguised in civilian clothing, the raiders captured a locomotive several hundred miles behind the lines. Closely pursued by Confederates, the group headed north burning bridges and destroying track behind them. This "Great Locomotive Chase"

quickly ended with the capture of all the raiders, eight of whom were executed. All members of the party were awarded Medals.

Since then, each armed service has fashioned its own Medal of Honor and has developed regulations which specify criteria for the award of the medal.

A recommendation for the award of a Medal of Honor must be made within 2-3 years after the date of the deed, depending upon the service in question. Each recommendation must be so outstanding that it clearly distinguishes the nominee's gallantry beyond the call of duty from lesser forms of bravery; it must involve the risk of the nominee's life; and it must be of a type which, if the nominee had not done it, there could not be any justified criticism.

In addition to the great honor which it represents, Medal of Honor recipients are entitled to a special pension of \$100 per month and, under certain condition, to free military air transportation.

On the pages which follow, we honor those black Americans whose uncommon courage and valor should serve as inspiration to all Americans for all time.

The Medal of Honor in the Civil War

During the course of the Civil War, 1,523 Medals of Honor were awarded; twenty-three to black soldiers and sailors.

The first black recipient of the Medal of Honor was Sergeant William H. Carney, Company C, 54th Massachusetts Infantry (Colored).



Sergeant William H. Carney
Photo Courtesy:
Moorland-Spingarn Research Center

In July 1863, the 54th Massachusetts Infantry (Colored) was a part of the Union force besieging Fort Wagner, South Carolina. On July 18, the assault began. When the unit's color bearer was shot, Sergeant Carney grabbed the flag before it could hit the ground. He moved to the front of the column and lead the advance to the walls of the fort under intense musketry and cannon fire. Finding himself alone among wounded and dying soldiers, Carney returned to Union lines, being wounded twice, but not giving up the flag.

Other black Medals of Honor recipients included:

☆ **Anderson, Aaron.**

Landsman, U.S.S. Wyandank. Medal of Honor awarded June 22, 1865 for action on March 17, 1865 at Mattox Creek.

☆ **Barnes, William H.**

Private, Company C, 38th U.S. Colored Troops, Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in St. Mary's County, Maryland.

☆ **Beaty, Powhatan**

First Sergeant, Company G, 5th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in Richmond, Virginia.

☆ **Blake, Robert**

Powder boy, U.S.S. Marblehead. Medal of Honor awarded April 16, 1864 for action on December 25, 1863 in an engagement on Stone River off Legareville.

☆ **Bronson, James H.**

First Sergeant, Company D, 5th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in Indiana County, Pennsylvania.

☆ **Brown, William H.**

Landsman, U.S.S. Brooklyn. Medal of Honor awarded December 31, 1864 for action on August 5, 1864 in Mobile Bay. He was born in 1836 in Baltimore, Maryland.

☆ **Brown, Wilson**

Landsman, U.S.S. Hartford. Medal of Honor awarded December 31, 1864 for action on August 5, 1864 in Mobile Bay. He was born in 1841 in Natchez, Mississippi.

☆ **Dorsey, Decatur**

Sergeant, Company B, 39th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded November 8, 1965 for action on July 30, 1864 at Petersburg, Virginia. He was born in Howard County, Maryland.

☆ **Fleetwood, Christian A.**

Sergeant Major, 4th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in Baltimore and was a graduate of Ashmund Institute (now Lincoln University) in 1858.



Sergeant-Major Christian A. Fleetwood
Photo Courtesy:
Moorland-Spingarn Research Center

☆ **Gardiner, James**

Private, Company I, 36th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in Gloucester, Virginia.

☆ **Harris, James H.**

Sergeant, Company B, 38th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded February 18, 1874 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in St. Mary's County, Maryland.

☆ **Hawkins, Thomas R.**

Sergeant Major, 6th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded February 8, 1870 for action on July 21, 1864 at Deep Bottom, Virginia. He was born in Cincinnati, Ohio.

☆ **Hilton, Alfred B.**

Sergeant, Company H, 4th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in Harford County, Maryland.

It should also be noted that on June 22, 1865, Clement Dees would have been awarded the Medal of Honor for bravery while serving as a Seaman on the U.S.S. Pontoosuc. The act for which he earned the Medal occurred on June 22, 1865 on the Cape Fear River. However, by the time the Medal was approved, Dees had been declared a deserter and his medal was forfeited.

☆ **Holland, Milton M.**

Sergeant Major, 5th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in 1844 in Austin, Texas.

☆ **Kelly, Alexander**

First Sergeant, Company F, 6th U.S. Colored Troops. Medal of Honor awarded April 6, 1865 for action on September 29, 1864 at Chapins Farm, Virginia. He was born in Pennsylvania.

☆ **Lawson, John**

Landsman, U.S.S. Hartford. Medal of Honor awarded December 31, 1864 for action on August 5, 1864 in Mobile Bay. He was born in 1837 in Pennsylvania.



Landsman John Lawson

The Medal of Honor in the West

In addition to Sergeant Stance, seventeen other black soldiers received the Medal of Honor. Four of these men served in the small (fifty people) unit known as the Seminole Negro Indian Scouts. After the Second Seminole War, some blacks had escaped to Mexico. Later, their descendants were enticed by the Government to move to Texas and some were enlisted as scouts to serve with the black regiments. This unit served faithfully but its members and their families were reduced to poverty in the late 1800's when the unit was disbanded. The Medal of Honor recipients include:

☆ **Boyne, Thomas**

Sergeant, Troop C, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded January 6, 1882 for action on September 27, 1879 at Cuchillo Negro River near Ojo Caliente, New Mexico. He was born in Prince Georges County, Maryland.

☆ **Brown, Benjamin**

Sergeant, Company C, 24th U.S. Infantry. Medal of Honor awarded February 19, 1890 for action on May 11, 1889 between Cedar Springs and Fort Thomas, Arizona. He was

born in Spotsylvania County, Virginia.

☆ **Denny, John**

Sergeant, Troop C, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded November 27, 1894 for action on September 18, 1879 at Las Animas Canyon, New Mexico. He was born in Big Flats, New York.

☆ **Factor, Pompey**

Private, Seminole Negro Indian Scouts. Medal of Honor awarded May 28, 1875 for action on April 25, 1875 at Pecos River, Texas. He was born in Arkansas.

☆ **Greaves, Clinton**

Corporal, Troop C, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded June 26, 1879 for action June 24, 1877 at Florida Mountains, New Mexico. He was born in Madison County, Virginia.

☆ **Johnson, Henry**

Sergeant, Troop D, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded September 22, 1890 for action on October 2-5, 1879 at Milk River, Colo-



Sergeant Benjamin Brown and Corporal Isaiah Mays, Heroism in Arizona, 1889
by Henry Casselli

U.S. Army Photograph
CC 107925

rado. He was born in Boynton, Virginia.

☆ **Jordan, George**

Sergeant, Troop K, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded May 7, 1890 for action on August 12, 1881 at Carrizo Canyon, New Mexico. He was born in Williamson County, Tennessee.

☆ **McBryar, William**

Sergeant, Troop K, 10th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded May 15, 1890 for action on March 7, 1889 in Arizona. He was born in Elizabethtown, North Carolina.

☆ **Mays, Isaiah**

Corporal, Company B. 24th U.S. Infantry. Medal of Honor awarded February 19, 1890 for action on May 11, 1889 between Cedar Springs and Fort Thomas, Arizona. He was born on February 16, 1858 at Carters Bridge, Virginia.

☆ **Paine, Adam**

Private, Seminole Negro Indian Scouts. Medal of Honor awarded October 13, 1875 for action on September 26-27, 1874 at Canyon Blanco, Statked Plains, Texas. He was born in Florida.

☆ **Payne, Issac**

Private (Trumpeter), Seminole Negro Indian Scouts. Medal of Honor awarded May 28, 1875 for action on April 22, 1875 at Pecos River, Texas. He was born in Mexico.

☆ **Shaw, Thomas**

Sergeant, Troop K, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded December 7, 1890 for action on August 12, 1881 at Carrizo Canyon, New Mexico. He was born in Covington, Kentucky.

☆ **Walley, Agustus**

Private Troop I, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded October 1, 1890 for action on August 16, 1881 at Cuchillo Negro Mountains, New Mexico. He was born in Reistertown, Maryland.

☆ **Ward, John**

Sergeant, Seminole-Negro Indian Scouts. Medal of Honor awarded May 28, 1875 for action on April 25, 1875 at Pecos River, Texas. He was born in 1847 at Santa Rosa, Mexico. He died March 24, 1911.

☆ **Williams, Moses**

First Sergeant, Troop I, 9th U.S. Cavalry Medal of Honor awarded November 12, 1896 for action on August 16, 1881 at Cuchillo Negro Mountains, New Mexico. He was born in Carrollton, Louisiana.

☆ **Wilson, William O.**

Corporal, Troop I, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded on September 17, 1891 for action in 1890 during the Sioux Campaign. He was born in Hagerstown, Maryland.

☆ **Woods, Brent**

Sergeant, Troop B, 9th U.S. Cavalry. Medal of Honor awarded July 12, 1894 for action on August 19, 1881 near McEver's ranch, New Mexico. He was born in Pulaski County, Kentucky.

Interim Period (1866-1898)

Throughout the period of the Indian Campaigns, the U.S. Navy patrolled the oceans, engaged in a brief conflict with Korea, and performed good-will visits in ports throughout the world. During this period, one hundred twenty-two persons received the Medal of Honor for acts of bravery. Most were awarded for saving fellow crewmembers from drowning; seven went to blacks. They were:

☆ Davis, John

Rank and organization: Ordinary Seaman, U.S. Navy. Born: 1854, Kingslow, Jamaica. G.O. No: 326, 18 October 1884. Citation: On board the U.S.S. Trenton, Toulon, France, February 1881. Jumping overboard, Davis rescued Augustus Ohlensen, coxswain, from drowning.

Girandy, Alphonse

Rank and organization: Seaman, U.S. Navy. Born 21 January 1868, Guadeloupe, West Indies. Accredited to: Pennsylvania. G.O. No: 85, 22 March 1902. Citation: Serving on board the U.S.S. Petrel, for heroism and gallantry, fearlessly exposing his own life to danger for the saving of others, on the occasion of the fire on board that vessel, 31 March 1901.

Johnson, John

Rank and organization: Seaman, U.S. Navy. Born: 1839, Philadelphia, Pa. Accredited to: Pennsylvania. G.O. No: 176, 9 July 1872. Citation: Serving on board the U.S.S. Kansas near Greytown, Nicaragua, 12 April 1872, Johnson displayed great coolness and self-possession at the time Comdr. A. F. Crosman and others were drowned and by extraordinary heroism and personal exertion, prevented greater loss of life.

Johnson, William

Rank and organization: Cooper, U.S. Navy. Born: 1855, St. Vincent, West Indies. Accredited to: New York. G.O. No: 326, 18 October 1884. Citation: Serving on board the U.S.S. Adams at the Navy Yard, Mare Island, Calif., 14 November 1879, Johnson rescued Daniel W. Kloppen, a workman from drowning.

Noil, Joseph B.

Rank and organization: Seaman, U.S. Navy. Born: 1841, Nova Scotia. Accredited to: New York. Citation: Serving board the U.S.S. Powhatan at Norfolk, 26 December 1872, Noil saved Boatswain J. C. Walton from drowning.

Smith, John

Rank and organization: Seaman, U.S. Navy. Born: 1854, Bermuda. Accredited to: New York. G.O. No: 326, 18 October 1884. Citation: For jumping overboard from the U.S.S. Shenandoah, at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 19 September 1880, and rescuing from drowning James Grady, first class fireman.

Sweeney, Robert

Rank and organization: Ordinary Seaman, U.S. Navy. Born: 1853, Montreal, Canada. Accredited to: New Jersey. G.O. No: 326, 18 October 1884. Second award. Citation: Serving on board the U.S.S. Kearsarge, at Hampton Roads, Va., 26 October 1881, Sweeney jumped overboard and assisted in saving from drowning a shipmate who had fallen overboard into a strongly running tide.

Second Award

Citation: Serving on board the U.S.S. Jamestown, at the Navy Yard, New York, 20 December 1883, Sweeney rescued from drowning A. A. George, who had fallen overboard from that vessel.

The Medal of Honor in Cuba

Of fifty-two medals awarded, six were presented to blacks.

☆ Baker, Edward L., Jr.

Rank and organization: Sergeant Major, 10th U.S. Cavalry. Place and date: At Santiago, Cuba 1 July 1898. Entered service at:---. Birth: Laramie County, Wyo. Date of issue: 3 July 1902. Citation: Left cover and, under fire, rescued a wounded comrade from drowning.

☆ Bell, Dennis

Rank and organization: Private, Troop H, 10th U.S. Cavalry. Place and date: At Tayabacoa, Cuba. 30 June 1893. Entered service at: Washington, D.C. Birth: Washington, D.C. Date of issue: 23 June 1899. Citation: Voluntarily went ashore in the face of the enemy and aided in the rescue of his wounded comrades; this after several previous attempts at rescue had been frustrated.

☆ Lee, Fitz

Rank and organization: Private, Troop M, 10th U.S. Cavalry. Place and date: At Tayabacoa, Cuba, 30 June 1898. Entered service at: Dinwiddie County, Va. Birth: Dinwiddie County, Va. Date of issue: 23 June 1899. Citation: Voluntarily went ashore in the face of the enemy and aided in the rescue of his wounded comrades; this after several previous attempts had been frustrated.

☆ Penn, Robert

Rank and organization: Fireman, First Class, U.S. Navy. Born: 10 October 1872, City Point, Va. Accredited to: Virginia. G.O. No: 501, 14 December 1898. Citation: On



Sergeant George H. Wanton

Photo Courtesy:

Moorland-Spingarn Research Center

board the U.S.S. Iowa off Santiago de Cuba, 20 July 1898. Performing his duty at the risk of serious scalding at the time of the blowing out of the manhole gasket on board the vessel, Penn hauled the fire while standing on a board thrown across a coal bucket 1 foot above the boiling water which was still blowing from the boiler.

☆ Thompkins, William H.

Rank and organization: Private, Troop G, 10th U.S. Cavalry. Place and date: At Tayabacoa, Cuba,

30 June 1898. Entered service at: Paterson, N.J. Birth: Paterson, N.J. Date of issue: 23 June 1899. Citation: Voluntarily went ashore in the face of the enemy and aided in the rescue of his wounded comrades; this after several previous attempts at rescue had been frustrated.

☆ **Wanton, George H.**

Rank and organization: Pri-

vate, Troop M, 10th U.S. Cavalry. Place and date: At Tayabacoa, Cuba, 30 June 1898. Entered service at: Paterson, N.J. Birth: Paterson, N.J. Date of issue: 23 June 1899. Citation: Voluntarily went ashore in the face of the enemy and aided in the rescue of his wounded comrades; this after several previous attempts at rescue had been frustrated.

The Medal of Honor in World War I

During World War I, one hundred eighteen Medals were awarded, none to blacks. This disparity is principally due to the fact that half the black troops to see combat were attached to French units, hence did not receive U.S. awards. In addition, only about 10% of all black soldiers in World War I were assigned to combat units or saw action.

The two most highly decorated

blacks were Privates Henry Johnson and Needham Roberts of the 369th Infantry. While stationed in an observation post in "no-man's land" they were attacked by a large German raiding party. Though both were wounded, they fought off the Germans using their rifles, grenades and a knife. They killed four and wounded thirty-two. A correspondent who interviewed them later wrote that "n-i-g-g-e-r will merely be another way of spelling American."

The Medal of Honor in World War II

No black received the Medal of Honor in World War II, although 431 were awarded to non-blacks. This disparity was the result of very limited combat experience and white

perceptions of black ineptitude. A number of blacks, however, received the Silver Star and other combat decorations.

The Medal of Honor in Korea

On a proportionate basis, more blacks saw combat duty in Korea than in World War II, constituting over 13% of all U.S. forces. Approximately 40% of all blacks assigned to Korea served in combat units; also a much higher percentage than in World War II. Of 131 Medals of Honor awarded, two went to blacks. They were:

☆ **Charlton, Cornelius H.**

Rank and organization: Sergeant, U.S. Army, Company C, 24th Infantry Regiment, 25th Infantry Division. Place and date: Near Chipori, Korea, 2 June 1951. Entered service at: Bronx, N.Y. Born: 24 July 1929, East Gulf, W.Va. G.O. No.: 30, 19 March 1952. Citation: Sgt. Charlton, a member of Company C, distinguished himself by conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity above and beyond the call of duty in action against the enemy. His platoon was attacking heavily defended hostile positions on commanding ground when the leader was wounded and evacuated. Sgt. Charlton assumed command, rallied the men, and spearheaded the assault against the hill. Personally eliminating 2 hostile positions and killing 6 of the enemy with his rifle fire and grenades, he continued up the slope until the unit suffered heavy casualties and became pinned down. Regrouping the men he led them forward only to be again hurled back by a shower of grenades. Despite a severe chest wound. Sgt. Charlton refused medical attention and led a third daring charge which carried to the crest of the ridge. Observing that the remaining emplacement which had retarded the advance was situated on the reverse slope, he charged it

alone, was again hit by a grenade but raked the position with a devastating fire which eliminated it and routed the defenders. The wounds received during his daring exploits resulted in his death but his indomitable courage, superb leadership, and gallant self-sacrifice reflect the highest credit upon himself, the infantry, and the military service.

☆ **Thompson, William**

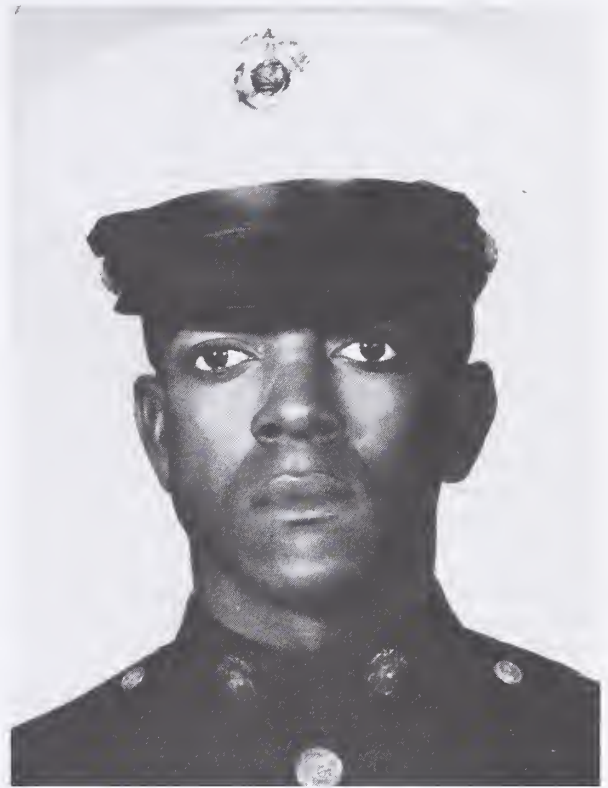
Rank and organization. Private First Class, U.S. Army, 24th Company M, 24th Infantry Regiment, 25th Infantry Division. Place and date: Near Haman, Korea, 6 August 1950. Entered service at: Bronx, N.Y. Birth: New York, N.Y. G.O. No. 63, 2 August 1951. Citation: Pfc. Thompson, distinguished himself by conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity above and beyond the call of duty in action against the enemy. While his platoon was reorganizing under cover of darkness, fanatical enemy forces in overwhelming strength launched a surprise attack on the unit. Pfc. Thompson set up his machinegun in the path of the onslaught and swept the enemy with withering fire, pinning them down momentarily thus permitting the remainder of his platoon to withdraw to a more tenable position. Although hit repeatedly by grenade fragments and small-arms fire, he resisted all efforts of his comrades to induce him to withdraw, steadfastly remained at his machinegun and continued to deliver deadly, accurate fire until mortally wounded by an enemy grenade. Pfc. Thompson's dauntless courage and gallant self-sacrifice reflect the highest credit on himself and uphold the esteemed traditions of military service.

The Medal of Honor in Vietnam

The increased participation of blacks in combat units is dramatically illustrated by recipients of the Medal of Honor. Of two hundred thirty-seven awarded, twenty went to blacks; 15 soldiers of 154 awards in the Army and 5 Marines of fifty-six awards in the Marine Corps. Black Medal of Honor recipients are:

☆ Anderson, James, Jr.

Rank and organization: Private First Class, U.S. Marine Corps, 2d Platoon, Company F, 2nd Battalion, 3d Marines, 3d Marine Division. Place and date: Republic of Vietnam, 28 February 1967. Entered service at: Los Angeles, Calif. Born: 22 January 1947, Los Angeles, Calif. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Company F was advancing in dense jungle northwest of Cam Lo in an effort to extract a heavily besieged reconnaissance patrol. Pfc. Anderson's platoon was the lead element and had advanced only about 200 meters when they were brought under extremely intense enemy small-arms and automatic weapons fire. The platoon reacted swiftly, getting on line as best they could in the thick terrain, and began returning fire. Pfc. Anderson found himself tightly bunched together with the other members of the platoon only 20 meters from the enemy positions. As the fire fight continued several of the men were wounded by the deadly enemy assault. Suddenly, an enemy grenade landed in the midst of the marines and rolled alongside Pfc. Anderson's head. Unhesitatingly and with com-



PFC James Anderson, Jr.

plete disregard for his personal safety, he reached out, grasped the grenade, pulled it to his chest and curled around it as it went off. Although several marines received shrapnel from the grenade, his body absorbed the major force of the explosion. In this singularly heroic act, Pfc. Anderson saved his comrades from serious injury and possible death. His personal heroism, extraordinary valor, and inspirational supreme self-sacrifice reflected great credit upon himself and the Marine Corps and upheld the highest traditions of the U.S. Naval Service. He gallantly gave his life for his country.

Anderson, Webster

Rank and organization: Sergeant First Class, U.S. Army, Battery A, 2d Battalion, 320th Artillery, 101st Airborne Infantry Division (Air-mobile). Place and date: Tam Ky, Republic of Vietnam, 15 October 1967. Entered service at: Winnsboro, S.C. Born: 15 July 1933, Winnsboro, S.C. Citation: Sfc. Anderson (then S/Sgt.), distinguished himself by conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action while serving as chief of section in Battery A, against a hostile force. During the early morning hours Battery A's defensive position was attacked by a determined North Vietnamese Army infantry unit supported by heavy mortar, recoilless rifle, rocket propelled grenade and automatic weapon fire. The initial enemy onslaught breached



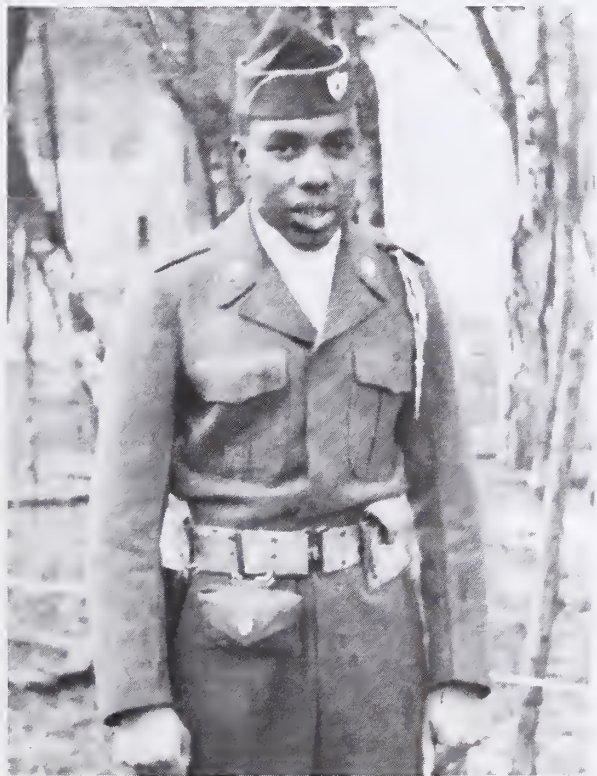
SFC Webster Anderson

the battery defensive perimeter. Sfc. Anderson, with complete disregard for his personal safety, mounted the exposed parapet of his howitzer position and became the mainstay of the defense of the battery position. Sfc. Anderson directed devastating direct howitzer fire on the assaulting enemy while providing rifle and grenade defensive fire against enemy soldiers attempting to overrun his gun section position. While protecting his crew and directing their fire against the enemy from his exposed position, 2 enemy grenades exploded at his feet knocking him down and severely wounding him in the legs. Despite the excruciating pain and though not able to stand, Sfc. Anderson valorously propped himself up on the parapet and continued to direct howitzer fire upon the closing enemy and to encourage his men to fight on. Seeing an enemy grenade land within the gunpit near a wounded member of his gun-crew, Sfc. Anderson heedless of his own safety, seized the grenade and attempted to throw it over the parapet to save his men. As the grenade was thrown from the position it exploded and Sfc. Anderson was again grievously wounded. Although only partially conscious and severely wounded, Sfc. Anderson refused medical evacuation and continued to encourage his men in the defense of the position. Sfc. Anderson by his inspirational leadership, professionalism, devotion to duty and complete disregard for his welfare was able to maintain the defense of his section position and to defeat a determined attack. Sfc. Anderson's gallantry and extraordinary heroism at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty are in the highest traditions of the military service and reflect great credit upon himself, his unit, and the U.S. Army.

☆ **Ashley, Eugene, Jr.**

Rank and organization: Sergeant First Class, U.S. Army, Company C, 5th Special Forces Group (Airborne), 1st Special Forces. Place and date: Near Lang Vei, Republic of Vietnam, 6th and 7th February 1968. Entered service at: New York, N.Y. Born: 12 October 1931, Wilmington, N.C. Citation: Sfc. Ashley, distinguished himself by conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity while serving with Detachment A-101, Company C. Sfc. Ashley was the senior special forces Advisor of a hastily organized assault force whose mission was to rescue entrapped U.S. special forces advisors at Camp Lang Vei. During the initial attack on the special forces camp by North Vietnamese army forces, Sfc. Ashley supported the camp with high explosive and illumination mortar rounds. When communications were lost with the main camp, he assumed the addi-

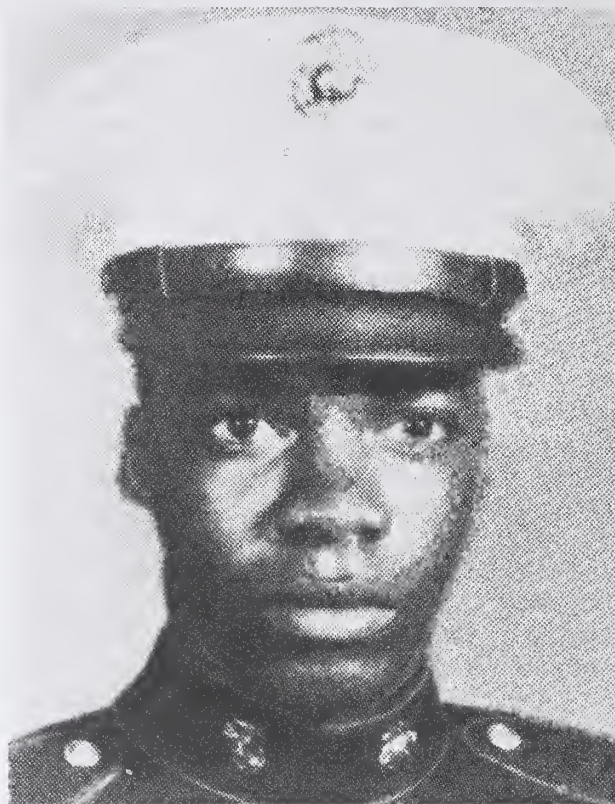
tional responsibility of directing air strikes and artillery support. Sfc. Ashley organized and equipped a small assault force composed of local friendly personnel. During the ensuing battle, Sfc. Ashley led a total of 5 vigorous assaults against the enemy, continuously exposing himself to a voluminous hail of enemy grenades, machinegun and automatic weapons fire. Throughout these assaults, he was plagued by numerous boobytrapped satchel charges in all bunkers on his avenue of approach. During his fifth and final assault, he adjusted air strikes nearly on top of his assault element, forcing the enemy to withdraw and resulting in friendly control of the summit of the hill. While exposing himself to intense enemy fire, he was seriously wounded by machinegun fire but continued his mission without regard for his personal safety. After the fifth assault he lost consciousness and was carried from the summit by his comrades only to suffer a fatal wound when an enemy artillery round landed in the area. Sfc. Ashley displayed extraordinary heroism in risking his life in an attempt to save the lives of his entrapped comrades and commanding officer. His total disregard for his personal safety while exposed to enemy observation and automatic weapons fire was an inspiration to all men committed to the assault. The resolute valor with which he led 5 gallant charges placed critical diversionary pressure on the attacking enemy and his valiant efforts carved a channel in the overpowering enemy forces and weapons positions through which the survivors of Camp Lang Vei eventually escaped to freedom. Sfc. Ashley's bravery at the cost of his life was in the highest traditions of the military service, and reflects great credit upon himself, his unit, and the U.S. Army.



SFC Eugene Ashley, Jr.

☆ **Austin, Oscar P.**

Rank and organization: Private First Class, U.S. Marine Corps, Company E, 2d Battalion, 7th Marines, 1st Marine Division (Rein.), FMF. Place and date: West of Da Nang, Republic of Vietnam, 23 February 1969. Entered service at: Phoenix, Ariz. Born: 15 January 1948, Nacogdoches, Tex. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty while serving as an assistant machine gunner with Company E, in connection with operations against enemy forces. During the early morning hours Pfc. Austin's observation post was subjected to a fierce ground attack by a large North Vietnamese Army force supported by a heavy volume of handgrenades, satchel charges, and small arms fire. Observing that one of his wounded companions had fallen unconscious in a position dangerously exposed to the hostile fire, Pfc. Austin unhesitatingly left the relative security of his fighting hole and, with complete disregard for his safety, raced across the fire-swept terrain to assist the marine to a covered location. As he neared the casualty, he observed an enemy grenade land nearby and, reacting instantly, leaped between the injured marine and the lethal object, absorbing the effects of its detonation. As he ignored his painful injuries and turned to examine the wounded man, he saw a North Vietnamese Army soldier aiming a weapon



PFC Oscar P. Austin

at his unconscious companion. With full knowledge of the probable consequences and thinking only to protect the marine, Pfc. Austin resolutely threw himself between the casualty and the hostile soldier, and, in doing, was mortally wounded. Pfc. Austin's indomitable courage, inspiring initiative and selfless devotion to duty upheld the highest traditions of the Marine Corps and the U.S. Naval Service. He gallantly gave his life for his country.

☆ Bryant, William Maud

Rank and organization: Sergeant First Class, U.S. Army, Company A, 5th Special Forces Group, 1st Special Forces. Place and date: Long Khanh Province, Republic of Vietnam, 24 March 1969. Entered Service at: Detroit, Mich. Born: 16 February 1933, Cochran, Ga. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty, Sfc. Bryant, assigned to Company A, distinguished himself while serving as commanding officer of Civilian Irregular Defense Group Company 321, 2d Battalion, 3d Mobile Strike Force Command, during combat operations. The battalion came under heavy fire and became surrounded by the elements of 3 enemy regiments. Sfc. Bryant displayed extraordinary heroism throughout the succeeding 34 hours of incessant attack as he moved throughout the company position heedless of the intense hostile fire while establishing and improving defensive perimeter, directing fire during critical phases of the battle, distributing ammunition, assisting the wounded, and providing the leadership and inspirational example of courage to his men. When a helicopter drop of ammunition was made to resupply the beleaguered force, Sfc. Bryant with complete disregard for his safety ran through the heavy enemy fire to retrieve the scattered ammunition boxes and distributed needed ammunition to his men. During a lull in the intense fighting, Sfc. Bryant led a patrol outside the perimeter to obtain information of the enemy. The patrol came under intense automatic weapons fire and was pinned down. Sfc. Bryant

singlehandedly repulsed 1 enemy attack on his small force and by his heroic action inspired his men to fight off other assaults. Seeing a wounded enemy soldier some distance from the patrol location, Sfc. Bryant crawled forward alone under heavy fire to retrieve the soldier for intelligence purposes. Finding the enemy soldier had expired, Sfc. Bryant crawled back to his patrol and led his men back to the company position where he again took command of the defense. As the siege continued, Sfc. Bryant organized and led a patrol in a daring attempt to break through the enemy encirclement. The patrol had advanced some 200 meters by heavy fighting when it was pinned down by the intense automatic weapons fire from heavily fortified bunkers and Sfc. Bryant was severely wounded. Despite his wounds he rallied his men, called for helicopter gunship support, and directed heavy suppressive fire upon the enemy positions. Following the last gunship attack, Sfc. Bryant fearlessly charged an enemy automatic weapons position, overrunning it, and singlehandedly destroying 3 defenders. Inspired by his heroic example, his men renewed their attack on the entrenched enemy. While regrouping his small force for the final assault against the enemy, Sfc. Bryant fell mortally wounded by an enemy rocket. Sfc. Bryant's selfless concern for his comrades, at the cost of his life above and beyond the call of duty are in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service and reflect great credit upon himself, his unit, and the U.S. Army.

(PHOTO NOT AVAILABLE)



Sergeant Rodney M. Davis

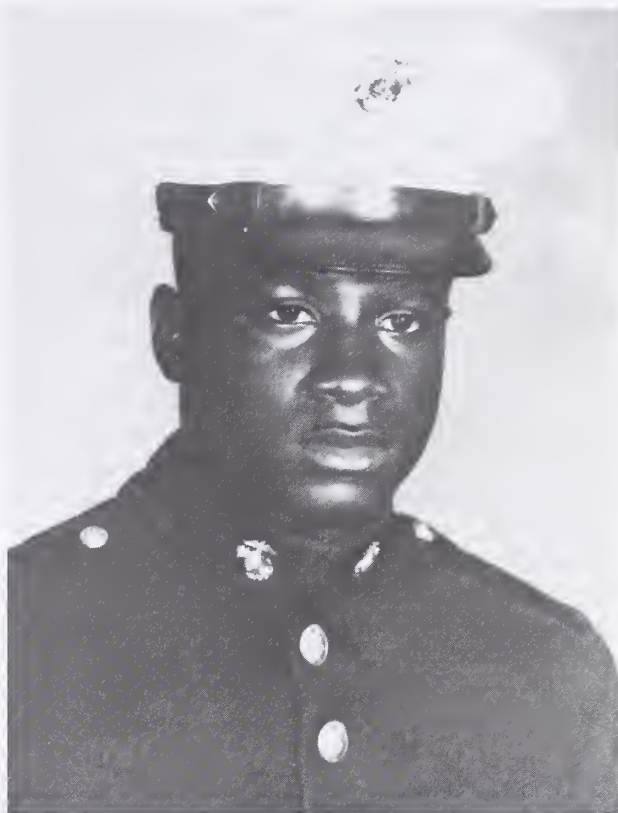
☆ **Davis, Rodney Maxwell**

Rank and organization: Sergeant, U.S. Marine Corps, Company B, 1st Battalion, 5th Marines, 1st Marine Division. Place and date: Quang Nam Province, Republic of Vietnam, 6 September 1967. Entered service at: Macon, Ga. Born: 7 April 1942,

Macon, Ga. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty while serving as the right guide of the 2nd Platoon, Company B, in action against enemy forces. Elements of the 2d Platoon were pinned down by a numerically superior force of attacking North Vietnamese Army Regulars. Remnants of the platoon were located in a trench line where Sgt. Davis was directing the fire of his men in an attempt to repel the enemy attack. Disregarding the enemy handgrenades and high volume of small arms and mortar fire, Sgt. Davis moved from man to man shouting words of encouragement to each of them while firing and throwing grenades at the onrushing enemy. When an enemy grenade landed in the trench in the midst of his men, Sgt. Davis, realizing the gravity of the situation, and in a final valiant act of complete self-sacrifice, instantly threw himself upon the grenade, absorbing with his body the full and terrific force of the explosion. Through his extraordinary initiative and inspiring valor in the face of almost certain death, Sgt. Davis saved his comrades from injury and possible loss of life, enabled his platoon to hold its vital position, and upheld the highest traditions of the Marine Corps and the U.S. Naval Service. He gallantly gave his life for his country.

☆ **Jenkins, Robert H., Jr.**

Rank and organization: Private First Class, U.S. Marine Corps, 3d Reconnaissance Battalion, 3d Marine Division (Rein.), FMF. Place and date: Fire Support Base Argonne, Republic of Vietnam, 5 March 1969. Entered service at: Jacksonville, Fla. Born: 1 June 1948, Interlachen, Fla. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty while serving as a machine gunner with Company C, 3d Reconnaissance Battalion, in connection with operations against enemy forces. Early in the morning Pfc. Jenkins' 12-man reconnaissance team was occupying a defensive position at Fire Support Base Argonne south of the Demilitarized Zone. Suddenly, the marines were assaulted by a North Vietnamese Army platoon employing mortars, automatic weapons, and handgrenades. Reacting instantly, Pfc. Jenkins and another marine quickly moved into a 2-man fighting emplacement, and as they boldly delivered accurate machinegun fire against the enemy, a North Vietnamese soldier threw a handgrenade into the friendly emplacement. Fully realizing the inevitable results of his action, Pfc. Jenkins quickly seized his comrade, and pushing the man to the ground, he leaped on top of the marine to shield him from the explosion. Absorbing the full impact of the deto-



PFC Robert H. Jenkins, Jr.

nation, Pfc. Jenkins was seriously injured and subsequently succumbed to his wounds. His courage, inspiring valor and selfless devotion to duty saved a fellow marine from serious injury or possible death and upheld the highest traditions of the Marine Corps and the U.S. Naval Service. He gallantly gave his life for his country.

Joel, Lawrence

Rank and organization: Specialist Sixth Class (then Sp5c), U.S. Army, Headquarters and Headquarters Company, 1st Battalion (Airborne), 503d Infantry, 173d Airborne Brigade. Place and date: Republic of Vietnam, 8 November 1965, Entered service at: New York, N.Y. G.O. No.: 15, 5 April 1967. Born: 22 February 1928, Winston-Salem, N.C. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of life above and beyond the call of duty. Sp6c. Joel demonstrated indomitable courage, determination, and professional skill when a numerically superior and well-concealed Viet Cong element launched a vicious attack which wounded or killed nearly every man in the lead squad of the company. After treating the men wounded by the initial burst of gunfire, he bravely moved forward to assist others who were wounded while proceeding to their objective. While moving from man to man, he was struck in the right leg by machine-gun fire. Although painfully wounded his desire to aid his fellow soldiers transcended all personal feeling. He bandaged his own wound and self-administered morphine to deaden the pain enabling him to continue his dangerous undertaking. Through this period of time, he constantly shouted words of encouragement to all around him. Then, completely ignoring the warnings of others, and his pain, he continued his search for wounded, exposing himself to hostile fire; and, as bullets dug up the dirt around him, he held plasma bottles high while kneeling completely engrossed in his life saving mission. Then, after being struck a second time and with a bullet lodged in his thigh, he dragged himself over the battlefield and succeeded in treating 13 more men before his medical supplies ran out. Displaying resourcefulness, he saved the life of 1 man by placing a plastic bag over a severe chest wound to congeal the blood. As one



SP5 Joel Lawrence

of the platoons pursued the Viet Cong, an insurgent force in concealed positions opened fire on the platoon and wounded many more soldiers. With a new stock of medical supplies, Sp6c. Joel again shouted words of encouragement as he crawled through the intense hail of gunfire to the wounded men. After the 24 hour battle subsided and the Viet Cong dead numbered 410, snipers continued to harass the company. Throughout the long battle, Sp6c Joel never lost sight of his mission as a medical aidman and continued to comfort and treat the wounded until his own evacuation was ordered. His meticulous attention to duty saved a large number of lives and his unselfish, daring example under most adverse conditions was an inspiration to all. Sp6c. Joel's profound concern for his fellow soldiers, at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty are in the highest traditions of the U.S. Army and reflect great credit upon himself and the Armed Forces of his country.

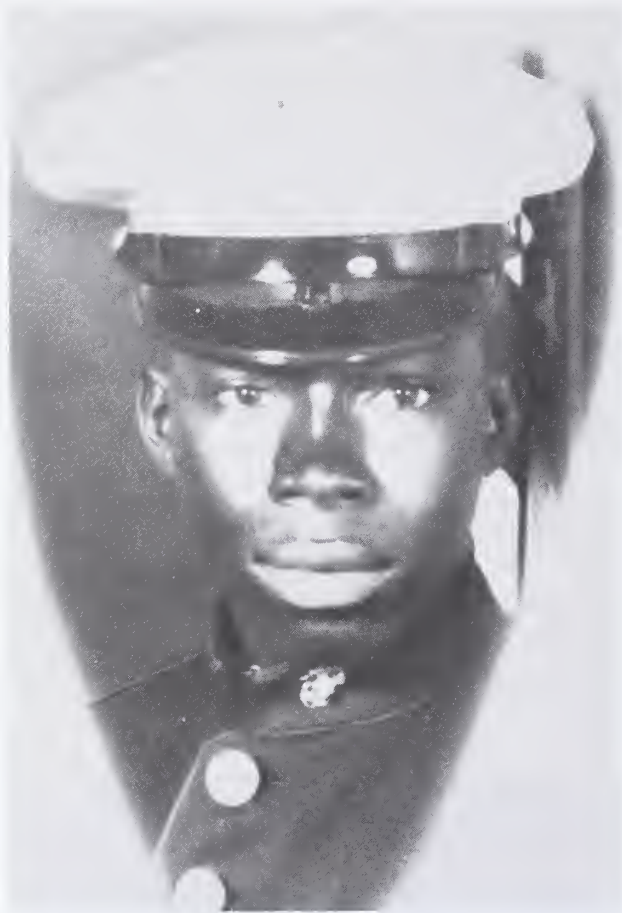
Johnson, Dwight H.

Rank and organization: Specialist Fifth Class, U.S. Army, Company B, 1st Battalion, 69th Armor, 4th Infantry Division. Place and date: Near Dak To, Kontum Province, Republic of Vietnam, 15 January 1968. Entered service at: Detroit, Mich. Born: 7 May 1947, Detroit, Mich. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Sp5c. Johnson, a tank driver with Company B, was a member of a reaction force moving to aid other elements of his platoon, which was in heavy contact with a battalion size North Vietnamese force. Sp5c. Johnson's tank, upon reaching the point of contact, threw a track and became immobilized. Realizing that he could do no more as a driver, he climbed out of the vehicle, armed only with a .45 caliber pistol. Despite intense hostile fire, Sp5c. Johnson killed several enemy soldiers before he had expended his ammunition. Returning to his tank through a heavy volume of antitank rocket, small arms and automatic weapons fire, he obtained a submachinegun with which to continue his fight against the advancing enemy. Armed with this weapon, Sp5c. Johnson again braved deadly enemy fire to return to the center of the ambush site where he courageously eliminated more of the determined foe. Engaged in extremely close combat when the last of his ammunition was expended, he killed an enemy soldier with the stock end of his submachinegun. Now weaponless, Sp5c. Johnson ignored the enemy fire around him, climbed into his platoon sergeant's tank, extricated a wounded crewmember and carried him to an armored personnel carrier. He then returned to the same tank and assisted in firing the main

gun until it jammed. In a magnificent display of courage, Sp5c Johnson exited the tank and again armed only with a .45 caliber pistol, engaged several North Vietnamese troops in close proximity to the vehicle. Fighting his way through devastating fire and remounting his own immobilized tank, he remained fully exposed to the enemy as he bravely and skillfully engaged them with the tank's externally-mounted .50 caliber machinegun; where he remained until the situation was brought under control. Sp5c. Johnson's profound concern for his fellow soldiers, at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty are in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service and reflect great credit upon himself and the U.S. Army.



SP5 Dwight H. Johnson



PFC Ralph H. Johnson

☆ **Johnson, Ralph H.**

Rank and organization: Private First Class, U.S. Marine Corps, Company A, 1st Reconnaissance Battalion, 1st Marine Division (Rein.), FMF. Place and date: Near Quan Duc Valley, Republic of Vietnam, 5 March

1968. Entered service at: Oakland, Calif. Born: 11 January 1949, Charleston, S.C. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty while serving as a reconnaissance scout with Company A, in action against the North Vietnamese Army and Viet Cong forces. In the early morning hours during Operation ROCK, Pfc. Johnson was a member of a 15-man reconnaissance patrol manning an observation post on Hill 146 overlooking the Quan Duc Valley deep in enemy controlled territory. They were attacked by a platoon-size hostile force employing automatic weapons, satchel charges and handgrenades. Suddenly, a handgrenade landed in the 3-man fighting hole occupied by Pfc. Johnson and 2 fellow marines. Realizing the inherent danger to his 2 comrades, he shouted a warning and unhesitatingly hurled himself upon the explosive device. When the grenade exploded, Pfc. Johnson absorbed the tremendous impact of the blast and was killed instantly. His prompt and heroic act saved the life of one marine at the cost of his life and undoubtedly prevented the enemy from penetrating his sector of the patrol's perimeter. Pfc. Johnson's courage, inspiring valor and selfless devotion to duty were in keeping with the highest traditions of the Marine Corps and the U.S. Naval Service. He gallantly gave his life for his country.

☆ **Langhorn, Garfield M.**

Rank and organization: Private First Class, U.S. Army, Troop C, 7th Squadron (Airmobile), 17th Cavalry, 1st Aviation Brigade. Place and date: Pleiku Province, Republic of Vietnam, 15 January 1969. Entered service at: Brooklyn, N.Y. Born: 10 September 1948, Cumberland, Va. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Pfc. Langhorn distinguished himself while serving as a radio operator with Troop C, near Plei Djereng in Pleiku Province. Pfc. Langhorn's platoon was inserted into a landing zone to rescue 2 pilots of a Cobra helicopter shot down by enemy fire on a heavily timbered slope. He provided radio coordination with the command-and-control aircraft overhead while the troops hacked their way through dense undergrowth to the wreckage, where both aviators were found dead. As the men were taking the bodies to a pickup site, they suddenly came under intense fire from North Vietnamese soldiers in camouflaged bunkers to the front and right flank, and within minutes they were surrounded. Pfc. Langhorn immediately radioed for help from the orbiting gunships, which began to place minigun and rocket fire on the aggressors. He then lay between the platoon leader and another man, operating the radio and providing covering fire for the wounded who had been moved to the center of the of the small perimeter. Darkness soon fell, making it impossible for the gunships to give accurate sup-



PFC Garfield M. Langhorn

port, and the aggressors began to probe the perimeter. An enemy hand-grenade landed in front of Pfc. Langhorn and only a few feet from personnel who had become casualties. Choosing to protect these wounded, he unhesitatingly threw himself on the grenade, scooped it beneath his body and absorbed the blast. By sacrificing himself, he saved the lives of his comrades. Pfc. Langhorn's extraordinary heroism at the cost of his life was in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service and reflect great credit on himself, his unit, and the U.S. Army.

☆ Leonard, Matthew

Rank and organization: Platoon Sergeant, U.S. Army, Company B, 1st Battalion, 16th Infantry, 1st Infantry Division. Place and date: Near Suoi Da, Republic of Vietnam, 28 February 1967. Entered service at: Birmingham, Ala. Born: 26 November 1929, Eutaw, Ala. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. His platoon was suddenly attacked by a large enemy force employing small arms, automatic weapons, and handgrenades. Although the platoon leader and several other key leaders were among the first wounded. P/Sgt. Leonard quickly rallied his men to throw back the initial enemy assaults. During the short pause that followed, he organized a defensive perimeter, redistributed ammunition, and inspired his comrades through his forceful leadership and words of encouragement. Noticing a wounded companion outside the perimeter, he dragged the man to safety but was struck by a sniper's bullet which shattered his left hand. Refusing medical attention and continuously exposing himself to the increasing fire as the enemy again assaulted the perimeter, P/Sgt. Leonard moved from position to position to direct the fire of his men against the well camouflaged foe. Under the cover of the main attack, the enemy moved a machinegun into a location where it could sweep the entire perimeter. This threat was magnified when the platoon machinegun in this area malfunctioned. P/Sgt. Leonard quickly crawled to the gun position and was helping to clear the malfunction when the gunner and other men in the vicinity



P/Sgt Matthew Leonard

were wounded by fire from the enemy machinegun. P/Sgt. Leonard rose to his feet, charged the enemy gun, and destroyed the hostile crew despite being hit several times by enemy fire. He moved to a tree, propped himself against it, and continued to engage the enemy until he succumbed to his many wounds. His fighting spirit, heroic leadership, and valiant acts inspired the remaining members of his platoon to hold back the enemy until assistance arrived. P/Sgt. Leonard's profound courage and devotion to his men are in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service, and his gallant actions reflect great credit upon himself and the U.S. Army.

☆ Long, Donald Russell

Rank and organization: Sergeant, U.S. Army, Troop C, 1st Squadron, 4th Cavalry, 1st Infantry Division. Place and date: Republic of Vietnam, 30 June 1966. Entered service at: Ashland, Ky. Born: 27 August 1939, Blackfork, Ohio. G.O. No. 13, 4 April 1968. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Troops B and C, while conducting a reconnaissance mission along a road were suddenly attacked by a Viet Cong regiment, supported by mortars, recoilless rifles and machineguns,

from concealed positions astride the road. Sgt. Long abandoned the relative safety of his armored personnel carrier and braved a withering hail of enemy fire to carry wounded men to evacuation helicopters. As the platoon fought its way forward to resupply advanced elements, Sgt. Long repeatedly exposed himself to enemy fire at point blank range to provide the needed supplies. While assaulting the Viet Cong position, Sgt. Long inspired his comrades by fearlessly standing unprotected to repel the enemy with rifle fire and grenades as they attempted to mount his carrier. When the enemy threatened to overrun a disabled carrier nearby, Sgt. Long again disregarded his own safety to help the severely wounded crew to safety. As he was handing arms to the less severely wounded and reorganizing them to press the attack, an enemy grenade was hurled onto the carrier deck. Immediately recognizing the imminent danger, he instinctively shouted a warning to the crew and pushed to safety one man who had not heard his warning over the roar of battle. Realizing that these actions would not fully protect the exposed crewmen from the deadly explosion, he threw himself over the grenade to absorb the blast and thereby saved the lives of 8 of his comrades at the expense of his life. Throughout the battle, Sgt. Long's extraordinary heroism, courage and supreme devotion to his men were in the finest tradition of the military service, and reflect great credit upon himself and the U.S. Army.



SGT Donald R. Long

☆ Olive, Milton L., III

Rank and organization: Private First Class, U.S. Army, Company B, 2d Battalion (Airborne), 503d Infantry, 173d Airborne Brigade. Place and date: Phu Cuong, Republic of Vietnam, 22 October 1965. Entered service at: Chicago, Ill. Born: 7 November 1946, Chicago, Ill. G.O. No. 18, 26 April 1966. Citation: for conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Pfc. Olive was a member of the 3d Platoon of Company B, as it moved through the jungle to find the Viet Cong operating in the area. Although the platoon was subjected to a heavy volume of enemy gunfire and pinned down temporarily, it retaliated by assaulting the Viet Cong positions, causing the enemy to flee. As the platoon pursued the insurgents, Pfc. Olive and 4 other soldiers were moving through the jungle together when a grenade was thrown into their midst. Pfc. Olive saw the grenade, and then saved the lives of his fellow soldiers at the sacrifice of his by grabbing the grenade in his hand and falling on it to absorb the blast with his body. Through his bravery, unhesitating actions, and complete disregard for his safety, he prevented additional loss of

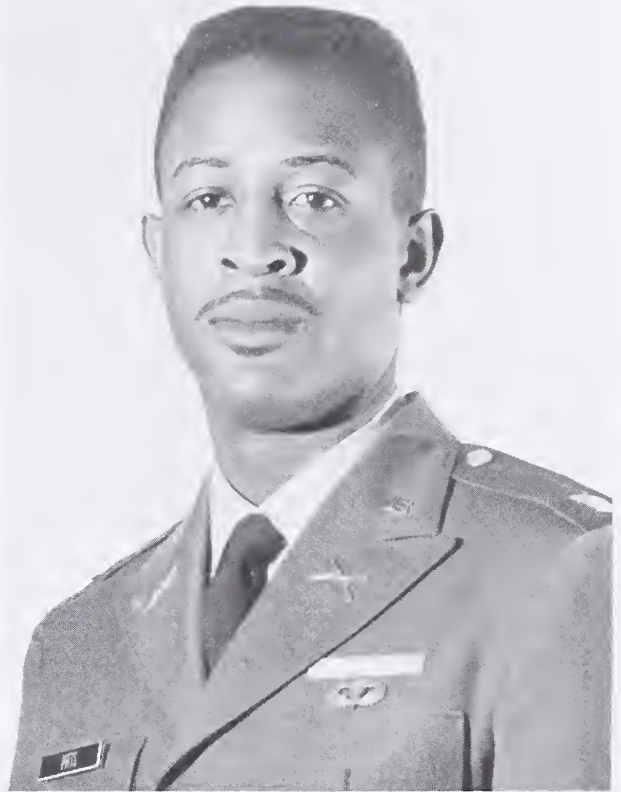


PFC Milton L. Olive, III

life or injury to the members of his platoon. Pfc. Olive's extraordinary heroism, at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty are in the highest traditions of the U.S. Army and reflect great credit upon himself and the Armed Forces of his country.

☆ **Pitts, Riley L.**

Rank and organization: Captain, U.S. Army, Company C, 2d Battalion, 27th Infantry, 25th Infantry Division. Place and date: Ap Dong, Republic of Vietnam, 31 October 1967. Entered service at: Wichita, Kans. Born: 15 October 1937, Fallis, Okla. Citation: Distinguishing himself by exceptional heroism while serving as company commander during an air-mobile assault. Immediately after his company landed in the area, several Viet Cong opened fire with automatic weapons. Despite the enemy fire, Capt. Pitts forcefully led an assault which overran the enemy positions. Shortly thereafter, Capt. Pitts was ordered to move his unit to the north to reinforce another company heavily engaged against a strong enemy force. As Capt. Pitts' company moved forward to engage the enemy, intense fire was received from 3 directions, including fire from 4 enemy bunkers, 2 of which were within 15 meters of Capt. Pitts' position. The severity of the incoming fire prevented Capt. Pitts from maneuvering his company. His rifle fire proving ineffective against the enemy due to the dense jungle foliage, he picked up an M-79 grenade launcher and began pinpointing the targets. Seizing a Chinese Communist grenade which had been taken from a captured Viet Cong's web gear, Capt. Pitts lobbed the grenade at a bunker to his front, but it hit the dense jungle foliage and rebounded. Without hesitation, Capt. Pitts threw himself on top of the grenade which, fortunately, failed to explode. Capt. Pitts then directed the repositioning of the company to permit friendly artillery to be fired. Upon completion of the artillery fire mission, Capt. Pitts again led his men toward the enemy positions, personally killing at

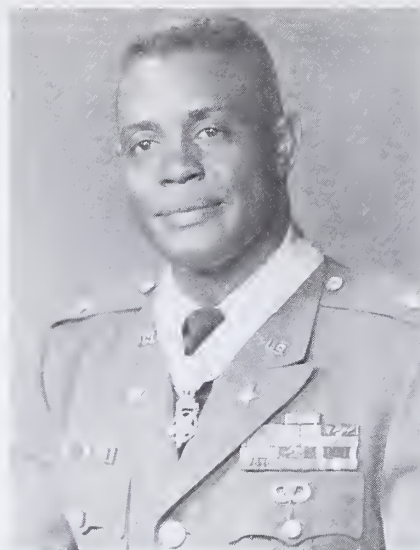


CPT Riley L. Pitts

least one more Viet Cong. The jungle growth still prevented effective fire to be placed on the enemy bunkers. Capt. Pitts, displaying complete disregard for his life and personal safety, quickly moved to a position which permitted him to place effective fire on the enemy. He maintained a continuous fire, pinpointing the enemy's fortified positions, while at the same time directing and urging his men forward, until he was mortally wounded. Capt. Pitts' conspicuous gallantry, extraordinary heroism, and intrepidity at the cost of his life, above and beyond the call of duty, are in the highest traditions of the U.S. Army and reflect great credit upon himself, his unit, and the Armed Forces of his country.

Rogers, Charles Calvin

Rank and organization: Lieutenant Colonel, U.S. Army, 1st Battalion, 5th Artillery, 1st Infantry Division. Place and date: Fishhook, near Cambodian border, Republic of Vietnam, 1 November 1968. Entered service at: Institute, W.Va. Born: 6 September 1929, Claremont, W.Va. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Lt. Col. Rogers, Field Artillery, distinguished himself in action while serving as commanding officer, 1st Battalion, during the defense of a forward fire support base. In the early morning hours, the fire support base was subjected to a concentrated bombardment of heavy mortar, rocket and rocket propelled grenade fire. Simultaneously the position was struck by a human wave ground assault, led by sappers who breached the defensive barriers with bangalore torpedoes and penetrated the defensive perimeter. Lt. Col. Rogers with complete disregard for his safety moved through the hail of fragments from bursting enemy rounds to the embattled area. He aggressively rallied the dazed artillery crewmen to man their howitzers and he directed their fire on the assaulting enemy. Although knocked to the ground and wounded by an exploding round, Lt. Col. Rogers sprang to his feet and led a small counter-attack force against an enemy element that had penetrated the howitzer positions. Although painfully wounded a second time during the assault, Lt. Col. Rogers pressed the attack killing several of the enemy and driving the remainder from the positions. Refusing medical treatment, Lt. Col. Rogers reestablished and reinforced the defensive positions. As a second human wave attack was launched against another sector of the perimeter, Lt. Col. Rogers directed artillery fire on the assaulting enemy and led a second counterattack against the



LTC Charles C. Rogers

charging forces. His valorous example rallied the beleaguered defenders to repulse and defeat the enemy onslaught. Lt. Col. Rogers moved from position to position through the heavy enemy fire, giving encouragement and direction to his men. At dawn the determined enemy launched a third assault against the fire base in an attempt to overrun the position. Lt. Col. Rogers moved to the threatened area and directed lethal fire on the enemy forces. Seeing a howitzer inoperative due to casualties, Lt. Col. Rogers joined the surviving members of the crew to return the howitzer to action. While directing the position, Lt. Col. Rogers was seriously wounded by fragments from a heavy mortar round which exploded on the parapet of the gun position. Although too severely wounded to physically lead the defenders, Lt. Col. Rogers continued to give encouragement and direction to his men in the defeating and repelling of the enemy attack. Lt. Col. Rogers' dauntless courage and heroism inspired the defenders of the fire support base to the heights of valor to defeat a determined and numerically superior enemy force. His relentless spirit of aggressiveness in action are in the highest traditions of the military service and reflects great credit upon himself, his unit, and the U.S. Army.

☆ **Sergeant, Ruppert L.**

Rank and organization: First Lieutenant, U.S. Army, Company B, 4th Battalion, 9th Infantry, 25th Infantry Division. Place and date: Hau Nghia Province, Republic of Vietnam, 15 March 1967. Entered service at: Richmond, Va. Born: 6 January 1938, Hampton, Va. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. While leading a platoon of Company B, 1st Lt. Sargeant was investigating a reported Viet Cong meetinghouse and weapons cache. A tunnel entrance which 1st Lt. Sargeant observed was boobytrapped. He tried to destroy the boobytrap and blow the cover from the tunnel using handgrenades, but this attempt was not successful. He and his demolition man moved in to destroy the boobytrap and cover which flushed a Viet Cong soldier from the

tunnel, who was immediately killed by the nearby platoon sergeant. 1st Lt. Sargeant, the platoon sergeant, and a forward observer moved toward the tunnel entrance. As they approached, another Viet Cong emerged and threw 2 handgrenades that landed in the midst of the group. 1st Lt. Sargeant fired 3 shots at the enemy and then turned and unhesitatingly threw himself over the 2 grenades. He was mortally wounded, and his 2 companions were lightly wounded when the grenades exploded. By his courageous and selfless act of exceptional heroism, he saved the lives of the platoon sergeant and forward observer and prevented the injury of death of several other nearby comrades. 1st Lt. Sargeant's actions were in keeping with the highest traditions of the military services and reflect great credit upon himself and the U.S. Army.

(PHOTO NOT AVAILABLE)



PFC Clarence E. Sasser

Sasser, Clarence Eugene

Rank and organization: Specialist Fifth Class (then Pfc.), U.S. Army, Headquarters Company, 3d Battalion, 60th Infantry, 90th Infantry Division. Place and date: Ding Tuong Province, Republic of Vietnam, 10 January 1968. Entered service at Houston, Tex. Born: 12 September 1947, Chenango, Tex. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of

duty. Sp5 Sasser distinguished himself while assigned to Headquarters and Headquarters Company, 3d Battalion. He was serving as a medical aidman with Company A, 3d Battalion, on a reconnaissance in force operation. His company was making an air assault when suddenly it was taken under heavy small arms, recoilless rifle, machinegun and rocket fire from well fortified enemy positions on 3 sides of the landing zone. During the first few minutes, over 30 casualties were sustained. Without hesitation, Sp5 Sasser ran across an open rice paddy through a hail of fire to assist the wounded. After helping 1 man to safety, he was painfully wounded in the left shoulder by fragments of an exploding rocket. Refusing medical attention, he ran through a barrage of rocket and automatic weapons fire to aid casualties of the initial attack and, after giving them urgently needed treatment, continued to search for other wounded. Despite 2 additional wounds immobilizing his legs, he dragged himself through the mud toward another soldier 100 meters away. Although in agonizing pain and faint from loss of blood, Sp5 Sasser reached the man, treated him, and proceeded to encourage another group of soldiers to crawl 200 meters to relative safety. There he attended their wounds for 5 hours until they were evacuated. Sp5 Sasser's extraordinary heroism is in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service and reflects great credit upon himself, his unit, and the U.S. Army.

☆ Sims, Clifford Chester

Rank and organization: Staff Sergeant, U.S. Army, Company D, 2d Battalion (Airborne), 501st Infantry, 101st Airborne Division. Place and date: Near Hue, Republic of Vietnam, 21 February 1968. Entered service at: Jacksonville, Fla. Born: 18 June 1942, Port St. Joe, Fla. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. S/Sgt. Simms distinguished himself while serving as a squad leader with Company D. Company D was assaulting a heavily fortified enemy position concealed within a dense wooded area when it encountered strong enemy defensive fire. Once within the woodline, S/Sgt Sims led his squad in a furious attack against the enemy force which had pinned down the 1st Platoon and threatened to overrun it. His skillful leadership provided the platoon with freedom of movement and enabled it to regain the initiative. S/Sgt. Sims was then ordered to move his squad to a position where he could provide covering fire for the company command group and to link up with the 3d Platoon, which was under heavy enemy pressure. After moving no more than 30 meters S/Sgt. Sims noticed that a brick structure in which ammunition was stocked was on fire. Realizing the danger, S/Sgt. Sims took immediate action to move his squad from this position. Though in the process of leaving the area 2 members of his squad were injured by the subsequent explosion of the ammunition, S/Sgt. Sims' prompt actions undoubtedly prevented more serious casualties from occurring. While continuing through the dense



SSGT Clifford C. Sims

woods amidst heavy enemy fire, S/Sgt. Sims and his squad were approaching a bunker when they heard the unmistakable noise of a concealed boobytrap being triggered immediately to their front. S/Sgt Sims warned his comrades of the danger and unhesitatingly hurled himself upon the device as it exploded, taking the full impact of the blast. In so protecting his fellow soldiers, he willingly sacrificed his life. S/Sgt Sim's extraordinary heroism at the cost of his life is in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service and reflects great credit upon himself and the U.S. Army.

☆ **Warren, John E., Jr.**

Rank and organization: First Lieutenant, U.S. Army, Company C, 2d Battalion (Mechanized), 22d Infantry, 25th Infantry Division. Place and date: Tay Ninh Province, Republic of Vietnam, 14 January 1969. Entered service at: New York, N.Y. Born: 16 November 1946, Brooklyn, N.Y. Citation: For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity in action at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. 1st Lt. Warren, distinguished himself at the cost of his life while serving as a platoon leader with Company C. While moving through a rubber plantation to reinforce another friendly unit, Company C came under intense fire from a well-fortified enemy force. Disregarding his safety, 1st Lt. Warren with several of his men began maneuvering through the hail of enemy fire toward the hostile positions. When he had come to within 6 feet of one of the enemy bunkers and was preparing to toss a handgrenade into it, an enemy grenade was suddenly thrown into the middle of his small group. Thinking only of his men, 1st Lt. Warren fell in the direction of the grenade, thus shielding those around him from the blast. His action, performed at the cost of his life, saved 3 men from serious or



1LT John E. Warren, Jr.

mortal injury. 1st Lt. Warren's ultimate action of sacrifice to save the lives of his men was in keeping with the highest traditions of the military service and reflects great credit on him, his unit, and the U.S. Army.







Black Women

in the Military Service of the United States



Harriet Tubman leading raid by Union Soldiers

U.S. Army Photograph C-102239

"There was one of two things I had a right to, liberty, or death; if I could not have one, I would have the other; for no man should take me alive; I should fight for my liberty as long as my strength lasted, and when the time came for me to go, the Lord would let them take me."

Introduction

Throughout American history, military organizations have tended to rely exclusively upon men as combatants. Individual women, on occasion, served in military assignments and in combat. But it was not until the twentieth century that significant numbers of women were accepted into the armed forces.

When blacks were brought to this country, colonial and later state laws prohibited their education. Consequently, there are few works written by blacks during the early periods of

our national history. This dearth of primary source material, plus institutional biases, have resulted in a very sparse recognition of women generally and minority women in particular. Contemporary historians are attempting to correct this problem, but in many instances original records are missing or never contained mention of the contributions of black women. What follows is a fragmentary chronicle of the significant, though poorly documented, contributions of black women to our National Defense.

Colonial Period (1528-1774)

Traditional social rules for women in this period limited them to non-military positions. There was no standing American army, although Regular British troupes were stationed in major cities and in frontier posts used for trading with the Indians or as defensive barriers against the Indians or non-British in the event of war.

Militia service was strictly limited to men and although most colonies legislatively exempted service by slaves or blacks, some black freedmen served in militia units.

During periods of crisis, black women were often entrusted by their

white masters with caring for the whites' homes and valuables during their absence. On occasion, this extended to caring for and protecting white women and children who had been left behind.

On three occasions during the colonial period, France and Great Britain fought for mastery of the North American continent. The third of these conflicts, characterized by bloody border raids throughout a four year period (1774-1778), was known as King George's War. The only eyewitness account of a raid by Indian allies of the British during this war was written by Lucy Terry, a black woman slave from Deerfield, Massachusetts.

American Revolution (1775-1783)

Throughout the long struggle for Independence, women played a significant, if little known or acknowledged, role. In traditional roles, colonial women wove cloth for uniforms and flags, made bandages, melted their pewter ware for musket balls, and

cared for wounded soldiers in their homes.

In nontraditional roles, women disguised themselves as men and fought in the Continental Army and in the Marines. Women also served as members

of artillery crews.

A third group of women served in what we now call combat support functions but which were then performed by "camp followers."

Military forces of this era consisted primarily of combat forces (e.g., infantry, cavalry, and artillery). Clothing, horses, and weapons were often the property of the soldier. Food and sundries were generally taken to the troops by private merchants and sold to the soldiers. Medical and other support services were in their infancy. Women who wanted to be with their husbands, lovers, or near the activity, earned their support by doing laundry, cooking, providing home remedies and counsel to the soldiers, and generally performing tasks disdained by the men.

Black women undoubtedly performed in many, if not all, of these activities. Their contributions, however, were rarely noted or recorded by diarists or other writers. Given the incipient racism of the period, there is little doubt that combat support and morale boosting activities provided to the First Rhode Island Regiment, which was comprised of black men, were rendered by black women or not given at all.

Perhaps the most noted and certainly the most extensively documented black woman during the Revolutionary period was Phillis Wheatley. Born in Africa and brought to Boston by slave catchers in 1761, Wheatley was purchased by John Wheatley a wealthy merchant and tailor. She enjoyed a more liberal existence than most blacks and was taught to read and write. By her early teens, she was writing poetry. Her poems were concerned with a variety of themes, including the Africa of her birth and slavery.

In 1773, she visited England and had published a book, Poems on Various Subjects, Religious and Moral. This



Phillis Wheatley

was the second book to be published by an American woman and the first by a black woman.

In her book, Wheatley wrote a poem to the King's principal representative in North America, the Earl of Dartmouth:

"No more American in mournful strain
Of wrongs, and grievance unredress'd
complain,
No longer shall thou dread the iron
chain,
Which wanton Tyranny with lawless hand
Has made, and which it meant t' enslave
the land.

Should you, my lord, while you pursue
my song,
Wonder from whence my longe of Freedom
sprung,
Whence flow these wiches for the common
good,
By feeling hearts alone best under-
stood,
I, young in life, by seeming cruel fate
Was snatch'd from Afric's fancy'd happy

seat:
 What pangs excruciating must molest,
 What sorrows labour in my parent's
 breast?
 Steel'd was the soul and by no misery
 mov'd
 That from a father seiz'd his babe
 belov'd
 Such, such my case. And can I then
 but pray
 Others may never feel tyrannic sway?"

In 1775, when George Washington was named Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army, Wheatley wrote a poem in his honor and sent it to him. Washington acknowledged the poem in February 1776 and invited Wheatley to visit him at his Headquarters.

A year later Wheatley wrote about the war when she commented upon the capture of an American general by British forces:

"What various causes to the field
 invite!
 For plunder you, and we for freedom
 fight.
 Her cause divine with generous ardor
 fires,
 And every bosom glows as she inspires!
 Already, thousands of your troops are
 fled.
 To the Drear mansions of the silent
 dead:
 Columbia too, beholds with steaming
 eyes
 Her heroes fall - 'tis freedom's
 sacrifice!"

Although never a soldier or camp woman, Phillis Wheatley contributed to the war effort by making white Americans conscious of the intellect and patriotism of a people many assumed to have no "higher sensibility" or mental capability.

The Civil War (1861-1865)

When war erupted in April 1861, women of all races immediately formed committees to raise funds to support the volunteer regiments, to make bandages and medical dressings, to sew uniforms and flags, and to send food and other articles to troops at the front. As the war progressed, relief societies were formed to aid widows of soldiers killed in the war, to care for refugees and to reunite families separated by the various battles.

Over 180,000 black men served in the Union army and black women provided their sole support in addition to working in the more publicized efforts which aided white troops.

Approximately two months after the start of the war, Dorothea Dix was appointed Superintendent of Women Nurses for the Union Army and Clara Barton organized the Sanitary Commission (an early predecessor of the American Red Cross) to obtain and dis-

tribute supplies for the relief of wounded soldiers.

The biggest enemy of Civil War soldiers was disease; almost 80% of all deaths during the war were the result of sickness. Care for these ill and disabled soldiers was provided by civilians, most of whom were women. Since over 180,000 black men served in the armed forces of the Union army and another 200,000 black men worked in service units, it is clear that large numbers of black women were needed to provide assistance to them.

The most famous of the black women who volunteered to help the troops was Susie King Taylor. Born a slave in 1848 on one of the Georgia Sea Islands, she grew up in Savannah. She learned to read and write in a clandestine school taught by a free black woman.

In her early teens, Susie returned to the Sea islands and escaped slavery



Susie King Taylor

school for adult freedmen. She operated the school through 1868 but upon the death of her husband, she took employment as a house domestic and laundress. In 1874 she moved to Boston with her employers and continued to work as a house servant. In 1879, she married Russell Taylor.

While in Boston, Susie Taylor helped to organize the Boston branch of the Women's Relief Corps, an auxiliary of the Grand Army of the Republic in 1886.

In 1898 her son became ill in Louisiana and she returned to the South to nurse him. Though he needed specialist care, Jim Crow laws prevented her from taking him back to Boston; he died soon thereafter.

After the war, Col. Higginson encouraged her to write her wartime memoirs and contributed the Forward to her book. In 1902 Mrs. Taylor published her wartime memoirs and they constitute the only written record of the activities of black nurses during the Civil War.

Another prominent black woman during the Civil War period was Harriet Tubman who was born a slave in 1823. At an early age she was hired out and worked most often as a field hand. She was considered rebellious because of her intolerance of slavery. As a result, she suffered from beatings and whippings by white overseers. In her mid-teens she interfered with an overseer who was beating another slave and was hit in the head with a heavy object. As a result of this injury, she suffered from dizzy spells, black-outs, and seizures for the remainder of her life.

In the late 1840's, Harriet Tubman determined to escape with her husband and two brothers. Her husband refused to go and her brothers returned to slavery mid-way in their journey. Harriet Tubman continued alone to Delaware and Philadelphia where she worked

when the Union army occupied the islands in 1862. By now 14, she volunteered to work as a teacher in a school for freedmen on St. Simon's Island. Later that year, she married Edward King and moved to Port Royal Island off the coast of South Carolina.

While on Port Royal, Edward joined the First South Carolina Volunteers, a regiment of black troops being raised by General Hunter, the Union commander. Susie King taught soldiers in her husband's company to read and write as well as helped the men to clean their equipment, and nursed the wounded after battles.

In her semi-official position as unit laundress and volunteer nurse, Susie King traveled with her husband's unit, the First South Carolina Volunteers (later the 33d U.S. Colored Troops), throughout the War. In 1863, while at Camp Shaw in Beaufort, South Carolina, she met Clara Barton, the founder of the American Red Cross. She also became acquainted with Colonel Thomas Wentworth Higginson, the commander of the 33d U.S.C.T. and a noted abolitionist.

In February 1866, the 33d U.S.C.T. was disbanded and Susie King moved to Savannah where she opened a night

with white abolitionists. During the next 10 years she worked as a "conductor" in the Underground Railroad. She made approximately nineteen trips into the South and lead nearly three hundred slaves to freedom in the North and Canada. Known as the "Moses of her People", Harriet Tubman traveled, armed and alone, throughout the South. Her enemies placed a \$40,000 reward for her capture or death, but she never lost a "passenger" in her many trips.

She was praised and assisted in her efforts by abolitionists in the North, in Canada and in Great Britain. Her exploits were well publicized.

During this period she met John Brown and they became friends. She helped Brown to plan his noted raid on Harpers Ferry and it was only her own illness that prevented her from joining him.

When the Civil War erupted in 1861, she continued her trips into the South. In 1862 she worked in cooperation with Union forces which had recently captured the Georgia Sea Islands, serving as a liaison between Federal troops and recently freed blacks and as a volunteer nurse in camp hospitals.

While working in South Carolina, Harriet Tubman served as a spy and scout for the Union Army. At the request of Federal officers, she organized recently freed blacks into an intelligence service which provided tactical information on Confederate forces to the U.S. forces.

In June 1863, Harriet Tubman accompanied Colonel James Montgomery on a raid up the Combahee River in South Carolina. Leading the troops up the river, Harriet Tubman helped them avoid Confederate defenses and participated in the assault which destroyed commissary stores, cotton, and other property valued in the millions and



Harriet Tubman

helped over 700 slaves to escape to Union lines.

Now known as "General Tubman" by some, Harriet Tubman continued to work with Union forces throughout the war as cook, nurse, and guide.

Although she worked directly with the Army, she received no pay but she was able, on occasion, to draw rations. At the end of the war, she began a thirty-seven year campaign to receive compensation for her wartime services. Eventually she received a small monthly pension, but it was based upon her marriage to a black Union Army veteran who had died a few years after their marriage, not upon her own contributions!

Her post-war activities also included the founding of an old-age home for indigent blacks as well as schools and rest homes for the freedmen and their children.

Noted and respected by all, she died in 1913, penniless and ignored.

Interim Years (1865-1897)

After the Civil War, the armed forces were seriously reduced. The Army shrank from hundreds of regiments to 25 of infantry, 10 of cavalry, 5 of artillery, one of engineers, and a small group of headquarters and support units. These units were further fragmented by assignment to small, barren frontier posts, many of company size only. Women were not accepted for service and the geographical isolation of the units precluded the presence of civilian women; although wives of some officers lived on post.

Blacks remained segregated within the military structure. There were four all-black regiments; two infantry and two cavalry. They were assigned to frontier duty exclusively and served principally in Texas, Arizona, and Dakota Territories.

The only opportunity for women to have served was as nurses, as they had

done during the Civil War, but the Army had none. The isolation and small size of most frontier posts precluded the existence of permanent medical facilities or personnel. Doctors were assigned to large posts and rode circuit to the smaller garrisons. Men from regular units were detailed to serve as Hospital Stewards when needed to assist doctors.

Although black women had served during the Civil War as volunteer civilian nurses, none had been formally trained. The first black woman to be trained as a nurse in the United States was Miss Mary Eliza Mahoney, who graduated from the New England Hospital for Women and Children in 1879. The first separate school for black nurses was established in 1886, so if the military had accepted women, even in the limited role of nurse, there would have been few black women available for such service from 1865-1890.

Spanish-American War (1898)

During the five months of war, the Army grew in size from approximately 28,000 men to over 203,000. The four black regiments were augmented by four volunteer regiments, although ten had been authorized by Congress.

The Army was unable to provide adequate numbers of medical personnel for this rapid influx of troops; its full Medical Department and Hospital Corps numbered just over 900 persons. Although Army surgeons preferred male nurses, only half the needed number of men could be raised and most of them were medically untrained. Therefore, when the Daughters of the American Revolution (D.A.R.) offered to review applications from women nursing volunteers, screen them, and process employment contracts with the Army, the

military reluctantly agreed. All the women selected by the D.A.R. were graduates of nursing or medical schools, were certified by a physician to be physically fit, and had answered an extensive background questionnaire.

During the war, over 1,500 civilian contract nurses were hired by the Army. They were paid \$30 per month and wore their own nursing school uniforms as the military was unable to clothe them.

As in the Civil War, most of the casualties were caused by disease rather than bullets or shrapnel. Of almost 6,500 casualties by war's end, 10% had died in combat, 2% had died from wounds, and 88% had died from disease. The two most prevalent diseases

were typhoid fever, which was caused by unsanitary living conditions, and yellow fever, which was transmitted by mosquito.

During this period, blacks were assumed to be immune to typhoid fever, based upon racist assumptions of "long residence in warm wet climates and their thicker, dark skin." This brief in the white community was not factually based, but nevertheless, had long standing. When Philadelphia had been stricken by a yellow fever plague in 1793, a grateful white community received medical assistance from their black neighbors in the form of nursing and removal of the dead. Since the two groups lived part, the whites failed to see those blacks who had fallen ill and died after returning to their homes. This view of black immunity was so prevalent that the black volunteer regiments during the Spanish-American war were known as the "immunes". Consequently, in July 1898, the Surgeon

General authorized Mrs. Namahyoke Sockum Curtis, wife of the chief surgeon at Freedman's Hospital in Washington, D.C., to recruit black women nurses considered to be "immune". Most of the thirty-two recruits gathered by Mrs. Curtis served in the Continental United States at places such as Camp Thomas in Chickamauga Park, Georgia where typhoid fever patients were gathered.

When the war ended, the services rendered by the contract nurses had been so impressive that bills were introduced in Congress to create a permanent nurse corps in the Army. Though initially defeated in 1899, similar bills were reintroduced until Congress passed an Army reorganization bill in 1901 which contained a provision for an Army Nurse Corps. For the first time, women were an official part of the Army. A Navy Nurse Corps was later established in 1908.

World War I (1914-1918)

Between 1901 and 1917, when the buildup for World War I began, the Army Nurse Corps remained small. Nurses were generally restricted to large permanent hospitals. The American Red Cross remained the largest employer of nurses for disaster relief and other emergency services. Nurses enrolled in the Red Cross also constituted a reserve for the Army Nurse Corps. Throughout this period, there was still a limited number of black nurses. In 1909, the National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses (NACGN) was founded to work for professional recognition of black nurses and to improve the entry and training of black nursing students into nursing schools throughout the country.

When the United States declared war on Germany in April 1917, Mrs. Ada Thoms, a cofounder of the NACGN, began

urging black nurses to enroll into the American Red Cross. She was convinced that the military would require more nurses than they had and that it would go to its unofficial reserve in the Red Cross to meet its needs. She was correct in her forecast. What she did not predict was that the Red Cross would reject all black applicants.

Although the Red Cross was providing nurses to the military in much the same manner as the D.A.R. in 1898, Red Cross officials repeatedly told Mrs. Thoms that their ability to accept black nurses was conditioned entirely upon the acceptance of blacks for service by the Surgeon General and that this acceptance had yet to come. The Red Cross did, however, encourage black nurses to register with them so that in the event the Army did decide to accept black nurses, they could be rapidly called.

The Army did step up its recruiting of nurses, calling for 35,000 more persons, but it avoided contact with the NACGN. It was only in September 1918, just two months before the signing of the Armistice which ended the war, that black nurses were accepted into the Army Nurse Corps. At that time, an epidemic of influenza had struck world-wide. By its end in 1919, an estimated 22 million persons throughout the world had died from the influenza or related complications; over 500,000 of those persons were in the United States.

Since medical personnel were stricken as well as soldiers and civilians, the shortage of military nurses became acute and patient workloads increased. In response to this critical need, the Army decided to "experiment" with black nurses. It accepted eighteen black women in December 1918, and assigned them to base hospitals at Camp Sherman, Ohio and Camp Grant, Illinois. Although these nurses were provided with segregated living quarters and segregated recreational facilities, they worked during the day in an integrated environment, serving both white and black patients. They soon were recognized as highly competent professionals and their services were lauded by both hospital administrators and These first black nurses to serve in the Army Nurse Corps were:

Lillian Ball
 Pearl Billings
 Marion Brown
 Susan Boulding
 Eva Clay
 Aileen Cole
 Edna DePriest
 Magnolia Diggs
 Sophia Hill

Jeanette Minnis
 Anna Oliver Ramos
 Clara Rollins
 Lillian Spears
 Virginia Steele
 Frances Stewart
 Nettie Vick
 Jeanette West
 Mabel Williams

Black women supported the war effort in other ways as well. They raised money and purchased war bonds, made clothing and bandages for the troops, worked in restaurants and troop canteens, sent comfort kits to the men overseas, and worked in relief organizations such as the National Association of Colored Women's Clubs.

The YWCA operated a series of hostess houses, both in the United States and overseas. Their purpose was to provide a place for troops to rest, write letters, enage in recreation, sing songs, and to enjoy some of the comforts of civilization. Fifteen of these hostess houses were staffed totally by blacks and were placed near large black units in France and the United States. These houses were necessitated by the segregationist policies of the period, as black soldiers were barred from entering facilities serving whites.

World War II (1941-1945)

World War II provided the first opportunity for significant numbers of black women to serve in the military.

On May 14, 1942, President Roosevelt signed Public Law 554 creating the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC). On May 16, 1942, Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby was sworn in as Director, WAAC. In planning for the WAAC, the War Department announced to Congress that it would accept black WAAC offi-

cers and enlisted members up to 10% of the Corps; a figure similarly used for black men in the military.

Several black organizations and the black press objected to this extension of segregation, urging that WAAC units be integrated; they were not. Nonetheless, when the first class of 440 WAAC officer candidates was assembled, 40 were black. Despite this auspicious start, blacks never exceeded

5.9% of the total WAAC strength from 1943-1946. The Navy did not accept black women into its women's auxiliary corps (WAVES) until 1945 and then took only 72 black enlisted women and 2 black officers (approximately 0.1% of all women who served in the WAVES).

In July 1943, the WAAC was converted to the Women's Army Corps (WAC) by Congressional action. Member's of the WAC, however, had only temporary military status.

Initially, the military services planned to use women in only a small number of assignments such as clerical, cooking, and driving. As shortages of men in other positions developed, however, the list of jobs suitable for women was expanded. Utilization of black women was hampered by the Army's decision to assign units of black women only to those posts where a number of black male units were assigned or where there was a city with a significant black population nearby. Black women could be assigned overseas, but only upon the written request of an overseas commander.

Many black organizations pointed out that the Army's policy of segregation would deter highly qualified black women from enlisting. Although black WAC recruiting officers were sent around the country, many recruits failed to meet military enlistment standards. In addition, skills possessed by enlistees often did not meet military needs. This problem existed among white women as well, but the numbers of unassignable black women caused black organizations to charge that race, not ability, was a factor in the Army's assignment policy.

In July 1943 black WAC recruiting officers were withdrawn from the field. This action and charges by Mr. Truman Gibson, a black civilian aide to the Secretary of War, that the War Department was failing to give technical training to black women led to a furor in the black press. Eventually, black

women were assigned to jobs such as laboratory technician, graphotype machine operator, dental technician, aircraft maintenance, photographer, parachute packer, and driver in addition to the more traditional skills of clerk, cook, librarian and chaplain's assistant.

Black WACs experienced the same degree of male skepticism concerning their role as did white WACs. In addition, they were subjected to discriminatory treatment by military coworkers, supervisors, and the civilian community. Incidences of mistreatment and abuse were monitored and criticized by the black press and by civilian organizations concerned about discrimination within the military. The War Department attempted to resolve problems as they arose, but never to the full satisfaction of many.

The European Theater of Operations (ETO) was the only overseas theater to request and utilize black WACs. All other black women served in about thirty stations scattered throughout the continental United States.

As the result of political pressure from the black community, approximately 800 black women from the Army, the Air Force, and the Army Service Forces were organized into the 6888th Central Postal Battalion. Their mission would be to establish a central postal directory in Europe. The unit arrived in Europe in February 1945 under the command of Maj. Charity Adams.

Since it was a separate unit, the 6888th was assigned to segregated housing and work quarters. Other post facilities, such as Red Cross clubs, leave areas, and schools, were not segregated. The unit was praised for its discipline, military courtesy, grooming, and appearance by the theater commander.



Members of the 6888th Central Postal Battalion in front of their quarters in England
U.S. Army Photograph SC-200585-S



Members of the 6888th clean their quarters in England
U.S. Army Photograph SC-257463



MAJ Charity Adams and CPT Abbie Campbell inspect members of the 6888th in England
U.S. Army Photograph SC-200791



The mess hall of the 6888th in England
U.S. Army Photograph SC-200790



Members of the 6888th sort packages with French civilian employees
U.S. Army Photograph SC-337995-1



The 6888th Central Postal Directory Battalion marching in a parade at Roven, France, in honor of Joan of Arc following a ceremony at the market place where she was burned at the stake

U.S. Army Photograph SC-426441

Inaccurate reports by military inspectors indicated problems in unit efficiency, however, and the unit was not considered to be fully satisfactory. This was an unfair evaluation in that when the unit began work, they relieved a group of men who had left them with an undeliverable backlog of over three million pieces of mail.

In addition to their highly pressured work environment in England, members of the 6888th were also engaged in planning to move to France, where they were to staff a similar facility. This move was made in mid-1945. While in France, they performed with distinction. They suffered, however, from low morale due to their increased workload and isolation.

In addition to service in the Women's Army Corps, black women served in the Nurse Corps in each of the military services. Opportunities, however, were often limited. By 1943 there were only 160 black nurses commissioned in the Army and as late as mid-1944 they were employed only in hospitals at four Army Stations which had "Negro" hospitals. In July, 1944, the Army announced that it would accept black nurses without regard to numbers.

By early 1945, an Army representative testified to Congress that "every

Negro nurse who puts in an application and meets the requirements" was being accepted. Yet the National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses estimated that there were 2,500 black nurses who could be recruited. At its peak in August 1945, black participation in the Army Nurse Corps never exceeded 479 or 1% of the full Corps.

In March 1943, the first contingent of black medical personnel was sent overseas. Nine doctors and thirty nurses were shipped to Liberia where they treated black troops stationed there. By December 1943, every nurse in the unit had contracted malaria and they were returned to the United States.



Three nurses in front of the colored wards at Ft. Bragg, N.C., in 1941

U.S. Army Photograph SC-120654



The first group of black nurses on foreign soil — Monrovia, Liberia, 1943

Photo Courtesy: Mrs. Gertrude (Ivory) Bertram

In mid-1944, some of the black nurses who had returned from Liberia joined a group from the United States and sixty-three black nurses were sent to England. They were assigned to a hospital which treated German prisoners of war. Their commanding officer considered them to be highly efficient. A few months later, these nurses were transferred to another hospital which served as a rehabilitation center for American soldiers. For the first time, white Americans were treated by black medical personnel. This "experiment" was considered successful.

Black medical personnel were also sent to the Pacific. A hospital staffed totally by black personnel was established in North Burma to treat the soldiers building the Ledo Road. Another all-black unit was sent to the South Pacific in late 1943. Among its personnel were 15 black nurses, in addition to black doctors and black enlisted personnel who served as cooks, orderlies, drivers and technicians. This unit saw duty in Australia, New Guinea, and the Philippines.



BG B.O. Davis, Sr., the first black general in the regular Army, meets 2LT Phloy Frierson during his inspection of the 168th Station Hospital in England. It was this unit that "experimented" with the treatment of white American soldiers by black medical personnel.
U.S. Army Photograph SC-196580

Post-World War II

In June 1948, Congress passed the Women's Armed Forces Integration Act which gave to all military women permanent status in the regular and reserve components. Service for women, however, remained voluntary as they were not subject to the draft.

Basic personnel policies were the same for men and women in the post-war military, that is, men and women of like qualifications could serve in similar positions. There were, however, some significant differences. Enlistment requirements for women were more stringent in that education levels were higher as was the minimum enlistment age. Women were to be unmarried at the time of initial enlistment and pregnancies resulted in automatic dis-

charge. Women were also excluded from the military academies and were not permitted into regular college ROTC programs.

In the immediate post-war years, women were legislatively limited to 2% of the total military strength (a limit which was never reached) and were also legislatively exempted from combat or combat related military occupations. This policy tended to restrict women to the traditional clerical and nursing occupations. For example, almost one-third of all military women during the Korean Conflict were nurses. Black women served in the both the Nurse Corps and Medical Services Corps of each service, but in limited numbers.

With the outbreak of the Vietnam War in 1965, increased numbers of women volunteered for duty. In 1967, the 2% ceiling was lifted and more military specialties opened to women. During the 1970's, the first women were appointed to general officer positions and in September 1979, Hazel Winifred Johnson became the first black women general officer.

General Johnson was born in Pennsylvania and raised on her parent's

farm near Malvern in Chester County. She attended Tredyffrin-Easttown High School in Berwyn, Pennsylvania and received her BA in nursing from Villanova University. She also has an MA in Nursing Education from Columbia University and a PhD in Educational Administration from Catholic University. She entered the Army Nurse Corps in 1955 and has served in numerous hospitals overseas and in this country. In her present assignment, she is Chief of the Army Nurse Corps.

General Johnson has been awarded the Legion of Merit, Meritorious Service Medal, Army Commendation Medal with Oak Leaf Cluster, and has been recognized for her achievements in nursing by several military, professional, and civic organizations.

All Volunteer Force

When the all volunteer force was created in the 1970's, additional career fields were opened to women so that approximately 90% of all military occupational specialties could be filled by women. Movement of women into these nontraditional jobs was enhanced by the disestablishment of the WAC in April 1978. This more reflected the continuing integration of women into military activities and gave them a fuller role in the national defense effort. As the following table indicates, black women have taken advantage of these increased opportunities.



Brigadier General Hazel Winifred Johnson
U.S. Army Photograph P-190225

Black Women in the Armed Forces

	<u>Total Officers</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Total Enlisted</u>	<u>% *</u>
1971	431	3.3	4,236	14.4
1972	421	3.3	4,798	15.1
1973	442	3.5	6,633	15.7
1974	532	4.1	10,363	16.9
1975	644	4.7	14,425	17.4
1976	714	5.2	17,159	18.0
1977	1,004	6.7	19,163	18.6
1978	1,270	7.6	24,247	20.8
1979	1,677	8.9	31,266	23.9
1980	2,023	9.4	38,841	26.1
1981	2,400	10.3	43,973	27.4
1982	2,984	11.6*	46,834	28.1*
1983	3,136	11.8	48,052	28.3
1984	3,481	12.1	49,764	28.9

* Figure represents percentage of all women in the armed forces.

The table above shows that there has been a sixfold increase in the total number of black women officers in the last ten years and a tenfold increase of black women in the enlisted ranks during the same period, with most of the growth having occurred in the last five years. This rapid increase can be attributed to: (1) the elimination of the 2% of total force ceiling for women in 1967; (2) the introduction of the all volunteer force in the 1970's; (3) the openings of most military occupational specialties to women; and (4) the implementation of affirmative action plans within the military.

The 2,400 black women officers in the armed forces as of 1981 are scattered among all nine major occupational areas in the Department and among 57 of 66 DoD occupational groups for officers. The DoD occupation codes are intended to group similar occupations from each of the military services into one system for analytical purposes. For officers, approximately 2,100 military and 250 civilian occupations are grouped into nine occupational areas

which are subdivided into 66 occupational groups. Enlisted personnel in approximately 2,000 military and 275 civilian occupations are grouped into ten occupational groups, 68 occupational subgroups, and 160 specialties.

Over half (54.5%) of the black women officers are clustered in two occupational areas; medical officer and administrator. Approximately 85% of the black female medical officers are nurses and 62% of the black female administrators are in the personnel, fiscal, or general administrator subgroups.

The 43,973 black enlisted women are represented in all ten DoD occupational groups and 136 of the 160 occupational specialties. Almost half (46%) are clustered in the functional support and administration occupational group and over a third (34%) are almost equally distributed in the three occupational groups of communication and intelligence, medical and dental, and service and supply handler.

The Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS)

When General George C. Marshall became Secretary of Defense in September 1950, two of the issues he faced were effective implementation of racial integration in the uniformed services and the need for more efficient use of human resources. To work with him in these most important areas, he selected a labor relations and manpower expert as the first Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower and Personnel -- Anna M. Rosenberg, the first and only woman to hold that position.

By 1951, the war in Korea and other overseas requirements had convinced Defense planners of the need for more personnel. Secretary Marshall and Assistant Secretary Rosenberg decided to invite fifty women to Washington to form an advisory committee on how to obtain and efficiently utilize more women in the armed forces. Later known as the Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS), the Committee met for the first time in September 1951. Assistant Secretary Rosenberg hosted the group and chaired the meeting of business, education, and civic women.

One of the first activities undertaken by DACOWITS was to advise the Department of Defense on how to recruit over 70,000 more women for military service by June 1952. This was a tremendous projected increase as there were only some 40,000 women on active duty at that time.

Blacks played a part in DACOWITS from its inception. Among the first black members was Ms. Dorothy I. Height, now Chair of the National Council of Negro Women.

In October 1951, DoD formally established DACOWITS and set forth its objectives: (1) to inform the public of the need for women in the military; (2) to create further public acceptance

of women in the services by emphasizing to parents how the military assumes responsibility for the welfare of women entering the Service; and (3) to accelerate the recruitment of women, yet stress the quality as well as quantity of recruits.

During its initial year, DACOWITS made fifteen official recommendations; ten of which were implemented by the Department of Defense. These recommendations were made based upon briefings given to the committee by DoD personnel, studies conducted by the Committee itself, and observations made by DACOWITS members during visits to various military installations.

In 1954, DACOWITS received a new charter which changed its role from recruiting women for military service to promoting the acceptance of a military career for women by the general public and the military itself. In addition, the Committee was to assist and advise the Secretary of Defense on matters relating to women in the services. Committee meetings were to be held at least twice a year.

DACOWITS activities during the 1950's and 1960's tended to concentrate on specific issues, such as housing or promotions, each year.

By the early 1970's, however, DACOWITS members were asking penetrating questions on a large variety of issues. This increased activity may, in part, have been connected with the creation of an all volunteer force in 1972, the subsequent expansion of the total number of women in the military, and the opening of more military specialties to women.

Whatever the cause, DACOWITS today is a vital, active policy review body. It is concerned with a wide variety of issues such as: (1) physical standards for enlistment and their impact on

women; (2) military clothing and equipment and their adaptability to women; (3) sexual harassment; (4) equality of treatment for men and women; (5) the impact of increasing numbers of women on military readiness; (6) review of the legislative restrictions prohibiting women in combat; (7) assignment of women in high technology careers; (8) military and civilian women in policy-making positions; (9) OB/GYN care; and (10) role of women in the Guard and Reserves.

Blacks play a significant role in the DACOWITS consideration of these issues. As of December 1984, four of the thirty-four DACOWITS members were black. They included: Ms. Constance Newman; Mr. Marshall L. Bailey; Mrs. Jessie M. Rattley; and Dr. Freddie L. Groomes.



Dr. Freddie L. Groomes



Mrs. Jessie M. Rattley



Mr. Marshall L. Bailey



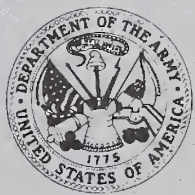
Ms. Constance Newman

In addition to its civilian membership, DACOWITS has a number of military representatives assigned to the Committee, and a three person Executive Secretariat staff.

DACOWITS provides top-quality advice to the Secretary of Defense on policy matters regarding military women. Its members -- as spokespersons in their own communities -- serve as vital links in obtaining public acceptance of the Armed Forces as a viable career for women and have provided critical information to the Secretary of Defense and to the military services about public perceptions and attitudes regarding the military. As a result of these efforts, women have become an integral part of the Armed Forces.







Black American

General and Flag Officers by Military Service



The First Black Generals

The highest ranking black officer to serve during the Civil War was Major Martin Delaney. During Reconstruction, however, ten men were appointed to general officer rank in various militia units. A relatively unknown group, they are recognized below:

1. Major General Robert B. Elliott, Commanding General, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1870).
2. Brigadier General Samuel J. Lee, Chief of Staff, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1872).
3. Brevet Brigadier General William Beverly Nash, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).
4. Brigadier General H.W. Purvis, Adjutant and Inspector General, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).
5. Brigadier General Joseph Hayne Rainey, Judge Advo-

cate General, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).

6. Major General Prince R. Rivers, Commanding General, Third Division, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).
7. Major General Robert Smalls, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).
8. Major General First Division, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).
9. Brigadier General William J. Whipper, Second Brigade, Second Division, National Guard of the State of South Carolina (1873).
10. Brigadier General T. Morris Chester, Fourth Brigade, National Guard of the State of Louisiana (1873-1874).

The First Black General in the Regular Armed Forces

Although forces in the military argued strongly against commissioning blacks, the years 1922-1941 saw two blacks graduate from the U.S. Military Academy and 592 blacks commissioned via R.O.T.C. In addition, 1940 saw the first black to work his way through the ranks to become a general officer.

BENJAMIN OLIVER DAVIS, SR

Benjamin O. Davis was born in Washington, D.C., on July 1, 1877. He entered the military service on July 13, 1898, during the War with Spain, as a temporary first lieutenant of the 8th United States Infantry. He was mustered out on March 6, 1899, and on June 14, 1899, he enlisted as a private in Troop I, 9th Cavalry, of the Regular Army. He then served as corporal and squadron sergeant-major, and on February 2, 1901, he was commissioned a second lieutenant of Cavalry in the Regular Army.



PROMOTIONS

He was promoted to first lieutenant on March 30, 1905; to captain on December 24, 1915; to major (temporary) on August 5, 1917; and to lieutenant colonel (temporary) on May 1, 1918. He reverted to his permanent rank of captain on October 14, 1919, and was promoted to lieutenant colonel on July 1, 1920; to colonel on February 18, 1930; to brigadier general (temporary) on October 25, 1940. He was retired on July 31, 1941, and recalled to active duty in the grade of brigadier general the following day.

SERVICE

His first service as a commissioned officer of the Regular Army was in the Philippine Islands with the 9th Cavalry on the Island of Samar. In August 1901 he was assigned to duty with the 2nd Squadron, 10th Cavalry, and returned from the Philippines with that organization for service as Adjutant at Fort Washakie, Wyoming. In September 1905 he was made Professor of Military Science and Tactics at Wilberforce University, Ohio, remaining there until September 1909, when, after a brief tour of duty at Fort Ethan Allen, Vermont, he was detailed as Military Attache to Monrovia, Liberia, until January 1912.

He then was assigned to duty with the 9th Cavalry at Fort D.A. Russell (now Fort Francis E. Warren), Wyoming, and at Douglas, Arizona. He remained with his regiment on border patrol duty until February 1915, when he again was assigned to duty as Professor of Military Science and Tactics at Wilberforce University, Ohio, remaining there until the summer of 1917, when he went to the Philippines for duty as Supply Officer of the 9th Cavalry at Camp Stot-

senburg. He returned to the United States in July 1920, and was assigned to duty as Professor of Military Science and Tactics at Tuskegee Institute, Alabama, where he served until July 1924, when he became Instructor of the 372nd Infantry, Ohio National Guard, with station at Cleveland, Ohio.

In July 1929 he again returned to Wilberforce University as Professor of Military Science and Tactics, where he remained until the latter part of 1930 when he was detailed on special duty with the Department of State in connection with affairs relating to the Republic of Liberia.

In the early part of 1931 he was again assigned to duty as Professor of Military Science and Tactics at Tuskegee, Alabama, where he remained until August 1937 when he was transferred to Wilberforce University.

During the summers 1930 to 1933 he was placed on detached service for duty with the Pilgrimage of War Mothers and Widows, making frequent trips to Europe in that connection. For his work on this assignment he received letters of commendation from the Secretary of War and from The Quartermaster General.

In August 1937 he was transferred from Tuskegee Institute to Wilberforce University, and after a year at that institution was assigned as instructor and Commanding Officer of the 369th Infantry, New York National Guard. This organization was later changed to the 369th Coast Artillery (Antiaircraft) Regiment. In January 1941 he was ordered to Fort Riley, Kansas, for duty as a Brigade Commander with the 2nd Cavalry Division, and the following June, he was assigned to Washington, D.C., for duty as Assistant to The Inspector General.

He was assigned to the European Theater of Operations in September 1942 on special duty as Advisor on Negro problems and upon completion of this special duty he returned to the United States and resumed his duties in the Inspector General's Department.

In November 1944 he became Special Assistant to the Commanding General, Communications Zone, European Theater of Operations with station in Paris, France, and in November 1945 was granted a period of detached service for the purposes of recuperation and rehabilitation. In January 1946, he again became Assistant, The Inspector General, Washington, D.C.

DECORATIONS

General Davis holds the award of Distinguished Service Medal received 1944; the Bronze Star Medal received 1945. Honorary Degree of LL.D., Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia.

French Croix de Guerre with Palm; Grade of Commander of the Order of the Star of Africa, Liberian Government.



President Harry S. Truman presents a scroll to Brigadier General Benjamin O. Davis, Sr., upon his retirement after fifty years service in the Army, while Mrs. Davis looks on. The ceremony took place in the White House on July 20, 1948.

The Second Black General in the Regular Armed Forces

Although various states had promoted blacks to general officer positions in the post World War II era, the active forces remained white (BG B.O. Davis, Sr. retired in 1948). It was not until 1954 that a second black was promoted to BG. Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., became the second black general officer in the regular forces, and the first black service academy graduate to achieve that position.

General Davis was born in Washington, D.C., December 18, 1912. He was graduated from Central High School in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1929, attended Western Reserve University and later the University of Chicago. He graduated from the U.S. Military Academy in 1936. He continued his education throughout his career, graduating from several additional schools. He entered Advanced Flying School at Tuskegee Army Air Base and received his pilot wings in March 1942.

General Davis transferred to the Army Air Corps in May 1942.

As Commander of the 99th Fighter Squadron at Tuskegee Army Air Base, he moved with his unit to North Africa in April 1943. He returned to the United States in October 1943, to assume command of the 332d Fighter Group at Selfridge Field, Michigan, and returned with the group to Italy two months later.

He returned to the United States in June 1945 to command the 477th Composite Group at Godman Field, Ky., and later assumed command of the Field. In March 1946 he went to Lockbourne Army Air Base, Ohio, as Commander of the base and in July 1947 became Commander of the 332d Fighter Wing there.



In 1949 General Davis went to the Air War College, Maxwell Air Force Base, Ala.; and after graduation, he was assigned to the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations, Headquarters U.S. Air Force, Washington, D.C.

In November 1953 he assumed duties as Commander of the 51st Fighter-Interceptor Wing, Far East Air Forces (FEAF), Korea. He served as Director of Operations and Training at FEAF Headquarters, Tokyo, from 1954 until 1955, when he assumed the position of Vice Commander, Thirteenth Air Force with additional duty as Commander, Air Task Force 13 (Provisional), Taipei, Formosa.

In April 1957 General Davis arrived at Ramstein, Germany, as Chief of Staff, Twelfth Air Force, United States Air Forces in Europe (USAFE).

In December 1957, he assumed new duties as Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations, Headquarters USAFE, Wiesbaden, Germany.

In July 1961 he returned to the Pentagon where he served as the Director of Manpower and Organization, Deputy Chief of Staff for Programs and Requirements; and in February 1965 was assigned as Assistant Deputy Chief of Staff, Programs and Requirements. He remained in that position until his assignments as Chief of Staff for the United

Nations Command and U.S. Forces in Korea in April 1965. He assumed Command of the Thirteenth Air Force at Clark Air Base in the Republic of the Philippines in August 1967.

General Davis was assigned as Deputy Commander in Chief, U.S. Strike Command, with headquarters at MacDill Air Force Base, Florida, in August 1968, with additional duty as Commander in Chief, Middle East, Southern Asia and Africa.

He retired in February 1970.

A Tribute to General Daniel "Chappie" James, the Highest Ranking Black General Officer



During the Vietnam era, a number of black officers achieved general or flag officer rank. Perhaps the most well known was Daniel "Chappie" James of the U.S. Air Force. In 1975, General James became the highest ranking black officer when he was promoted to four-star grade.

General James was born on February 11, 1920, in Pensacola, Florida. From September 1937 to March 1942, he attended Tuskegee Institute, where he received a degree in physical education and completed civilian pilot training under the Government-sponsored Civilian Pilot Training Program.

He remained at Tuskegee as a civilian instructor pilot in the Army Air Corps Aviation Cadet Program until January 1943, when he entered the program as a cadet and received his commission as a second lieutenant in July 1943.

In September 1949, General James went to Clark Field, Philippines, and in July 1950 he left for Korea, where he flew 101 combat missions in P-51 and F-80 aircraft.

In July 1951, General James went to Otis Air Force Base, Massachusetts, as an all-weather jet fighter pilot. While stationed at Otis, he received the Massachusetts Junior Chamber of Commerce 1954 award of "Young Man of the Year" for his outstanding community relations efforts.

From 1957 until 1966, General James attended the Air Command and Staff College and was stationed at Headquarters U.S. Air Force, Pentagon, the Royal Air Force Station at Bentwaters, England, and Davis-Monthan Air Force Base, Arizona.

General James went to Ubon Royal Thai Air Force Base, Thailand, in December 1966. He flew 78 combat missions into North Vietnam, many in the Hanoi/Haiphong area, and led a flight in which seven communist Mig 21s were destroyed, the highest total kill of any mission during the Vietnam War.

He was named Vice Commander at Eglin Air Force Base, Florida in December 1967. While stationed at Eglin, the Florida State Jaycees named General James as Florida's Outstanding American of the Year for 1969, and he received the Jaycee Distinguished Service Award. He was transferred to Wheelus Air Base in the Libyan Arab Republic in August 1969.

General James became Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense (Public Affairs) in March 1970 and assumed duty as Vice Commander of the Military Airlift Command, on September 1, 1974.

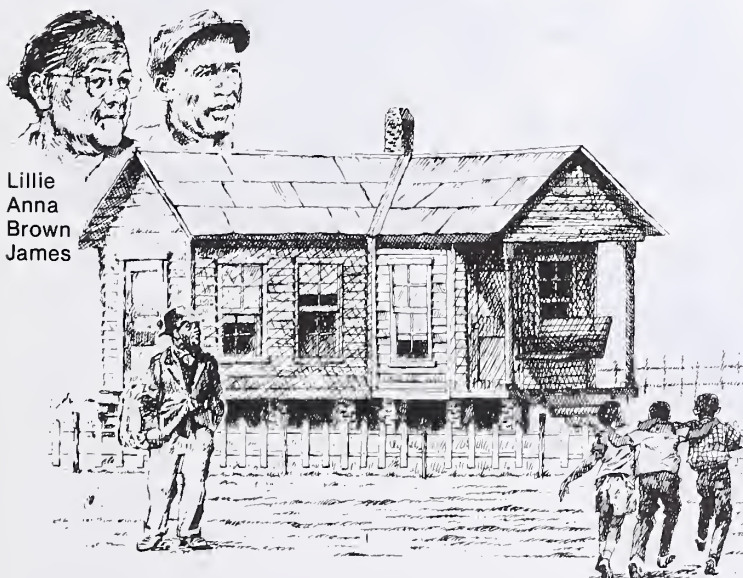
General James was promoted to four-star grade and assigned as Commander in Chief NORAD/ADCOM, Peterson Air Force Base, Colorado, on September 1, 1975. In these dual capacities, he had operational com-

mand of all United States and Canadian strategic aerospace defense forces. General James retired from the Air Force on February 1, 1978.

General James was widely known for his speeches on Americanism and patriotism for which he was editorialized in numerous national and international publications. Excerpts from some of the speeches have been read into the Congressional Record. He was awarded the George Washington Freedom Foundation Medal in 1967 and again in 1968. He received the Arnold Air Society Eugene M. Zuckert Award in 1970 for outstanding contributions to Air Force professionalism. His citation read "...fighter pilot with a magnificent record, public speaker, and eloquent spokesman for the American Dream we so rarely achieve." General James died on February 25, 1978.

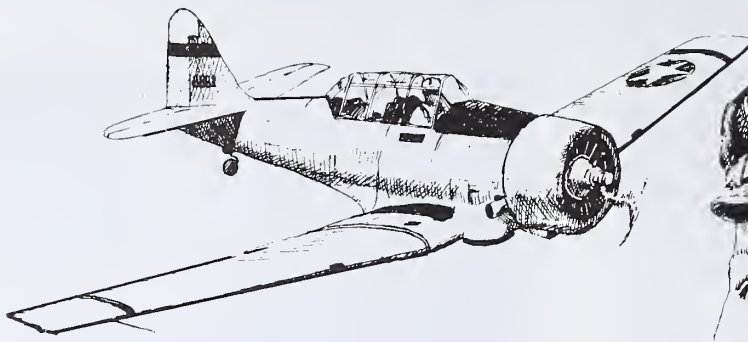
"You don't have to stop and take issue with every idiot who would hurl a rock or an epithet at you. Just pass them by."

Daniel James Sr.



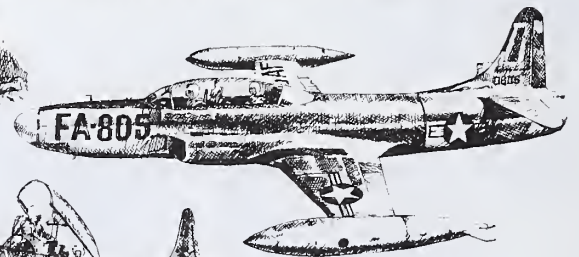
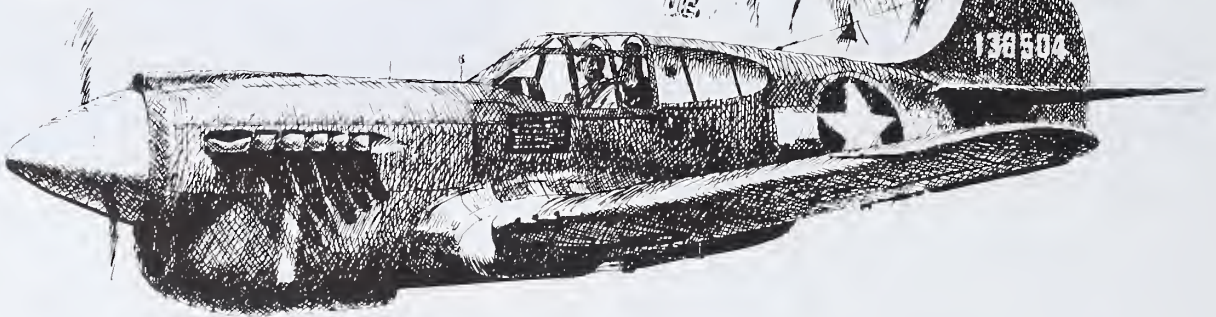
Lillie
Anna
Brown
James

- Daniel James, Jr., born February 11, 1920, in a poor section of Pensacola, Florida, the youngest of seventeen children.
- His mother found the schools in Pensacola were not giving her children a proper education, so she started her own—the Lillie A. James School.
- At 12 years of age he worked at odd jobs to earn plane rides and flying lessons.
- Completed the Civilian Pilot Training Program (CPTP) under Chief Charles A. Anderson and Chief Albert Anderson at Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Alabama. Graduated with a B.S. degree in physical education.
- Civilian flight instructor in Army Air Corps Aviation Cadet Program at Tuskegee.

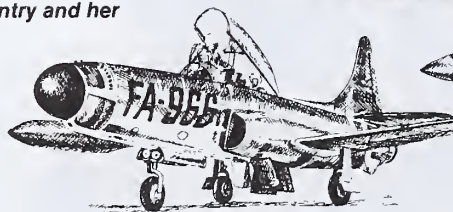


- Graduated number 1 in his Army Air Corps cadet training and was commissioned a Second Lieutenant.
- Attended Fighter Pilot Combat Training at Selfridge Field, Michigan.

"Prove to the world that you can compete on an equal basis."



"I have a deep and abiding belief in my country and her security."



- After the Korean War, he served as a jet fighter and fighter interceptor pilot and squadron commander.
- Received the Massachusetts Jr. Chamber of Commerce Award of "Young Man of the Year" in 1954.

December 1967-August 1969

- Served as tactical fighter wing commander in Florida and Libyan Arab Republic.



"Nobody dislikes war worse than warriors, but we understand it better."



"This promotion is important to me by the effect it will have on some kid on a hot sidewalk in some ghetto. If my making an advancement can serve as some kind of spark to some young Black or other minority, it will be worth all the years, all the blood and sweat it took in getting here."

"We didn't invent this war, nobody dislikes war more than warriors, but we value the causes of peace so highly that we will not duck a war in an effort to get a lasting peace."



"We still got another mile to run in that race for equality, but we've got a lot better track to run on and the trophies at the end are a lot better than they used to be."

A Tribute to General Roscoe Robinson, Jr. the Second Black Four-Star General in the Armed Forces



General Roscoe Robinson, Jr. was born on October 28, 1928 in St. Louis, Missouri where he received his elementary and secondary education. After graduation from Charles Sumner High School, he was appointed to the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, New York. He graduated in 1951 with a Bachelor of Science Degree in Military Engineering and was commissioned a Second Lieutenant.

After graduation, 2Lt Robinson attended the Associate Infantry Officer Course and the Basic Airborne Course at Fort Benning, Georgia. He then joined the 11th Airborne Division at Fort Campbell, Kentucky where he served as a platoon leader in the 188th Airborne Infantry Regiment until he went to Korea in October 1952.

In Korea, he served in the 31st Infantry Regiment, 7th Infantry Division as a rifle company commander and Battalion S-2. He was awarded the Bronze Star for his service in Korea.

Upon returning to the United States, he served in a variety of school and airborne unit assignments highlighted by a tour with the U.S.

Military Mission to Liberia in the late 1950's and the receipt of a Master's degree in International Affairs from the University of Pittsburgh in the early 1960's.

As a Lieutenant Colonel he served in Vietnam, first on the staff of the 1st Air Cavalry Division, then as the first black to command the 2nd Battalion, 7th Cavalry. For his Vietnam service, he was decorated with the Silver Star for valor.

Upon completion of the National War College in 1969, he served in Hawaii until his promotion to Colonel when he assumed command of the 2d Brigade, 82d Airborne Division in 1972.

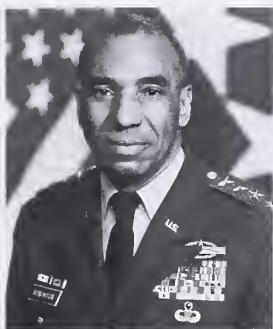
Since that time, he has, among other assignments, served as the Commanding General, U.S. Army Garrison, Okinawa; Commanding General, 82d Airborne Division; and Commanding General, United States Army, Japan/IX Corps.

In August 1982 he became the first black to become a four-star general in the Army and the second black in the Armed Forces; after General Daniel "Chappie" James. He is now serving as the United States Representative to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) Military Committee.

In his over 31 years of active duty service, General Robinson has been awarded the Silver Star (with Oak Leaf Cluster), the Legion of Merit (with two Oak Leaf Clusters), the Distinguished Flying Cross, the Bronze Star Medal, ten Air medals, the Army Commendation Medal, the Combat Infantryman Badge (2d Award), and the Master Parachutist Badge.



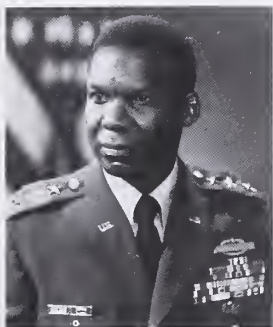
Black American General Officers in the Army



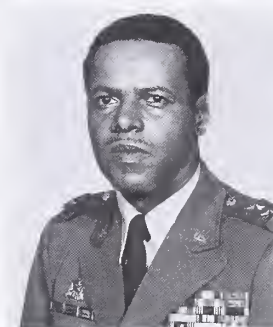
General
Roscoe Robinson, Jr.



Major General
Robert Bradshaw Adams



Lieutenant General
Julius Wesley Becton, Jr.
(Retired)



Major General
Harry William Brooks, Jr.
(Retired)



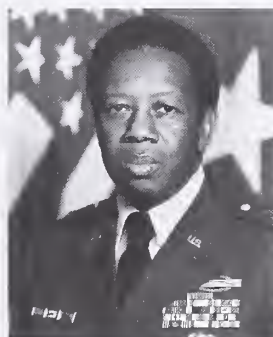
Lieutenant General
Arthur James Gregg
(Retired)



Major General
Leo Austin Brooks
(Retired)



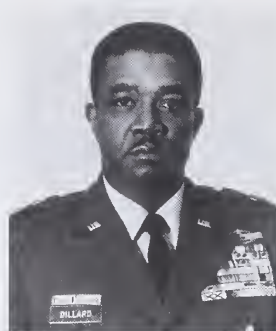
Lieutenant General
Emmett Paige, Jr.



Major General
John Mitchell Brown



Major General
Charles D. Bussey



Major General
Oliver Williams Dillard
(Retired)



Major General
Andrew Phillip Chambers



Major General
Henry Doctor, Jr.



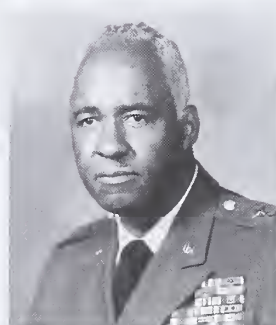
Major General
Eugene R. Cromartie



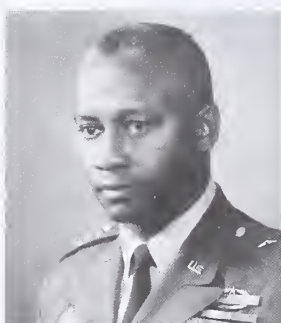
Major General
Robert Clarence Gaskill
(Retired)



Major General
Jerry Ralph Curry
(Retired)



Major General
Edward Greer
(Retired)



Major General
Frederic Ellis Davison
(Retired)



Major General
James Frank Hamlet
(Retired)



Major General
Arthur Holmes, Jr.



Major General
Hugh Granville Robinson
(Retired)



Major General
Edward Honor



Major General
Charles Calvin Rogers
(Retired)



Major General
Julius Parker, Jr.



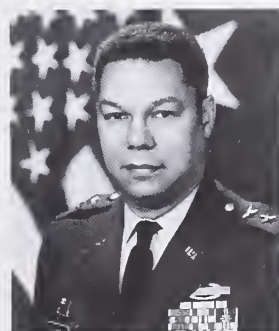
Major General
Fred Clifton Sheffy, Jr.
(Retired)



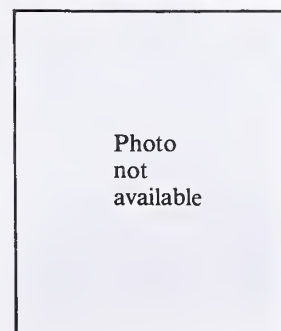
Major General
James Franklin McCall
(Promoted)



Major General
Harvey Dean Williams
(Retired)



Major General
Colin Luther Powell



Brigadier General
Wallace Cornelius Arnold

Photo
not
available

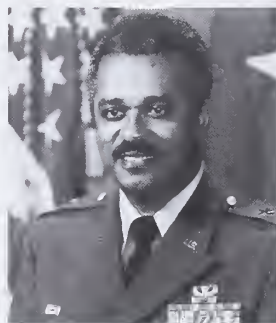
Brigadier General
Marvin Deleno Brailsford



Brigadier General
B.O. Davis, Sr.
(Deceased)



Brigadier General
Dallas Coverdale Brown, Jr.
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Donald J. Delandro



Brigadier General
Hazel Winifred
Johnson-Brown
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Johnie Forte, Jr.



Brigadier General
Alfred Jackal Cade
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Fred Augustus Gorden



Brigadier General
Roscoe Conklin Cartwright
(Deceased)



Brigadier General
James Reginald Hall, Jr.



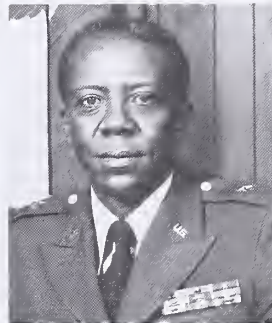
Brigadier General
Charles E. Honore



Brigadier General
George Macon Shuffer, Jr.
(Retired)



Brigadier General
James Richard Klugh



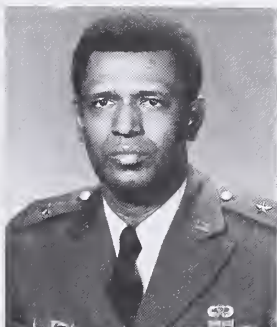
Brigadier General
Isaac D. Smith



Brigadier General
George Baker Price
(Retired)



Brigadier General
John Henry Stanford



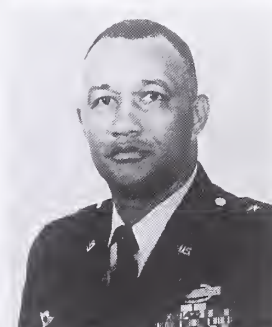
Brigadier General
Jackson E. Rozier



Brigadier General
Guthrie Lewis Turner, Jr.
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Alonzo Earl Short, Jr.



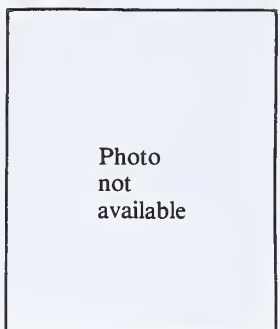
Brigadier General
Calvin Augustine Hoffman
Waller



Brigadier General
Charles Edward Williams



Colonel (Promotable)
Sherian Grace Cadoria



Colonel (Promotable)
Charles Alfonso Hines



Black American Flag and General Officers in the Navy and Marine Corps



Rear Admiral
Gerald E. Thomas
(Retired)



Vice Admiral
Samuel L. Gravely, Jr.
(Retired)



Rear Admiral
L.A. Williams



Rear Admiral
Lawrence C. Chambers
(Retired)



Commodore
Wendell N. Johnson



Rear Admiral
Benjamin Thurman Hacker



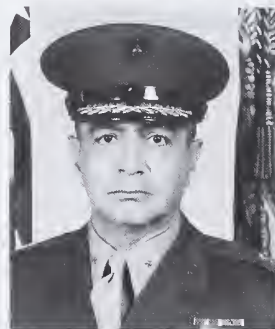
Commodore (Selectee)
William E. Powell, Jr.



Commodore
Robert L. Toney



Major General
Frank E. Petersen, Jr.
U.S. Marine Corps



Brigadier General
Jerome G. Cooper
(USMCR)



Black American General Officers in the Air Force



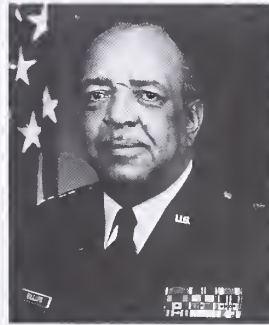
General
Daniel James
(Deceased)



Lieutenant General
Bernard P. Randolph



Lieutenant General
William E. Brown, Jr.
(Retired)



Major General
Rufus L. Billups
(Retired)



Lieutenant General
B.O. Davis, Jr.
(Retired)



Major General
Thomas E. Clifford
(Retired)



Lieutenant General
Winston D. Powers



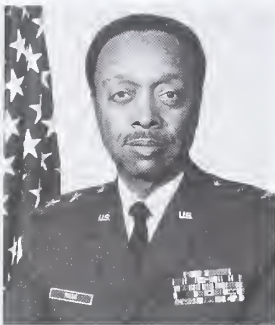
Major General
Archer L. Durham



Major General
Titus C. Hall
(Retired)



Brigadier General
David M. Hall
(Retired)



Major General
Lucius Theus
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Avon C. James
(Retired)



Brigadier General
James Timothy Boddie, Jr.
(Retired)



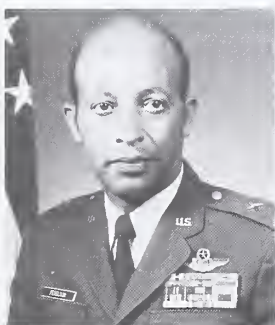
Brigadier General
Charles B. Jiggetts
(Retired)



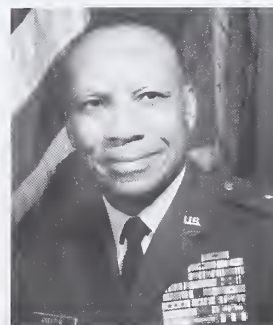
Brigadier General
Elmer T. Brooks



Brigadier General
Raymond V. McMillan



Brigadier General
Alonzo L. Ferguson
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Norris W. Overton
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Horace L. Russell



Brigadier General
John H. Voorhees



Black American General Officers in the Army and Air Force Reserves



Major General
Roger R. Blunt
USAR



Brigadier General
Albert Bryant
USAR (Retired)



Major General
Benjamin Lacy Hunton
USAR (Deceased)



Brigadier General
Vance Coleman
USAR



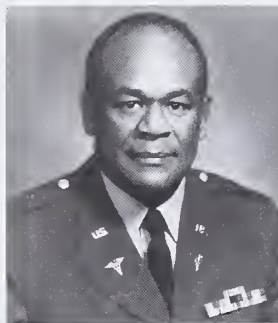
Major General
John Q.T. King
USAR (Retired)



Brigadier General
Talmadge Jacobs
USAR (Retired)



Brigadier General
William C. Banton
USAFR (Retired)



Brigadier General
Marion Mann
USAR (Retired)



Black American General Officers in the Army and Air National Guard



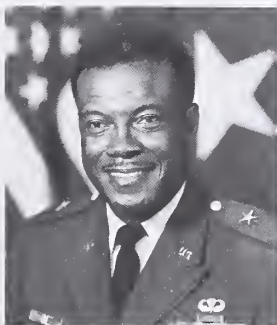
Brigadier General
Russell C. Davis
Commander, 113th TAC
Fighter Wing
District of Columbia
Air National Guard



Major General
Calvin G. Franklin
Commanding General
District of Columbia
National Guard



Brigadier General
Alonzo D. Dougherty
Commander, 69th Infantry
Brigade (Mech)
Kansas Army National Guard



Brigadier General
Leroy C. Bell
The Adjutant General
District of Columbia
National Guard



Brigadier General
Ernest R. Morgan
The Adjutant General
Virgin Islands
National Guard



Major General
Cunningham C. Bryant
District of Columbia National
Guard
(Retired)

Former ARNG Black American General Officers in the Retired Reserve



Brigadier General
Cornelius O. Baker
Pennsylvania Army National
Guard
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Edward O. Gourdin
Massachusetts Army
National Guard
(Retired)



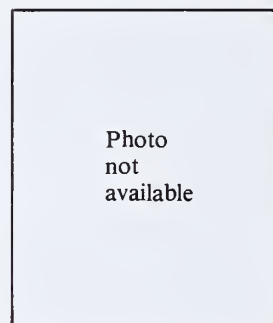
Brigadier General
Carl E. Brisco
New Jersey Army National
Guard
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Chauncey M. Hooper
New York Army National
Guard
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Louis Duckett
New York Army National
Guard
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Richard L. Jones
Illinois Army National
Guard
(Retired)



Brigadier General
William S. Frye
New Jersey Army National
Guard
(Retired)



Brigadier General
Raymond Watkins
Illinois Army National Guard
(Retired)







The Military Academies and

Black Americans

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The United States Military Academy

West Point, New York



History of the United States Military Academy

One of the first recommendations to establish a military academy for training artillery and engineer specialists came in 1776 from Colonel Henry Knox. He was supported by other political and military leaders, but little action was taken on his proposal. In 1783, President George Washington endorsed the concept of a military academy, citing the need for military knowledge in wartime which could only be obtained from long-term study. Nothing was done about his suggestion, however.

In 1799, Alexander Hamilton proposed a combined military education system based upon a "fundamental" school at West Point and three specialized schools in engineers and artillery, infantry and cavalry, and the navy. The idea was endorsed by President John Adams and was introduced in modified form in Congress in 1800.

While there was some sympathy for the idea, members of Congress and the public feared the threat of a full-time professional officer corps. Officers were viewed as aristocratic elitists and many people were aware that professional military officers had been the downfall of the French Revolution. The need for trained officers, as learned in the Revolutionary War, plus an increasingly tense international arena eventually tipped the scales in favor of a military academy. On March 16, 1802, Congress authorized ten cadets to be stationed at West Point and to be called a military academy. The Academy officially opened on July 4, 1802 with the Chief of Engineers in command.

The initial purpose of the Academy was to: (1) train military technicians, (2) encourage study of the military arts, and (3) encourage the practical study of every science. During its first ten years, West Point provided most of the trained engineers in the country.

In 1817, Sylvanus Thayer was named Superintendent of West Point. Known as the "father" of the Academy, he shaped the basic course of studies which is followed today, established methods and techniques of instruction, and initiated disciplinary measures for both the faculty and the cadets. Thayer placed emphasis on civil engineering, mental discipline, and the development of leaders. His graduates were not only trained in the art and science of war, but also served as explorers, surveyors, and mappers of the new country. Thayer remained at the Academy until 1833.

In 1843, a system for the regular appointment of cadets was instituted, relying upon Congressional and Presidential appointment. A four year system of classes was imposed and academic excellence was stressed.

During the Civil War, Academy graduates eventually assumed leadership positions in both armies and professionally trained officers became a necessity in this first technological war. After the war, the American system of higher education expanded and West Point dropped its emphasis on civil engineering subjects. From 1865-1902, the Academy moved to provide a well rounded officer who would enter post-graduate, specialized schools to enhance his career. West Point was now viewed as the beginning of professional training not the capstone.

In 1902, the Academy's educational system was renovated to emphasize classroom instruction followed by field training, not just rote drills, and the entire curriculum was liberalized to include English and liberal arts.

After World War I, General Douglas MacArthur became Superintendent. He changed the Academy's curriculum to emphasize physical conditioning, training in new weapons and tactics, classes in military history and social prob-

lems, and concepts of total war, to include the study of economics and government. World War II and the performance of West Point graduates proved the wisdom of his innovations.

Post World War II studies recommended adding national security, international relations, and a wider range of technological courses such as chemistry, nuclear physics, electronics, and astronautics to the cadet study program. The Military Academy today emphasizes the mental, moral, physical, and military skills necessary to enable each graduate to acquire the qualities and attributes necessary to lead soldiers in a highly technological environment.

The First Black Cadets

Immediately after the Civil War, slavery was abolished, blacks were recognized as citizens, and were given the right to vote; all by Constitutional amendment. The South underwent a period of economic and social reconstruction and for the first time, blacks were considered for appointment to the Academy.

Benjamin F. Butler, a former Union general and a Congressman from Massachusetts became interested in appointing a black cadet, but was unable to find a person he thought capable of withstanding the social and educational pressures which he was sure would be applied to black cadets.

James Smith. In 1870, Solomon L. Hoge, a representative from South Carolina, appointed James Webster Smith to be the first black cadet to attend the Academy. The son of a carpenter, Smith had received a high school education and was enrolled in Howard University at the time of his appointment to the Academy.

Smith was the only black of thirty-seven persons to pass the Academy's physical and mental examinations

in 1870. Another black had taken the exams, but did not pass.

For the next four years, Smith was ostracized by the cadets. They refused to speak to him, socialize with him, or even haze him as they did the other entering "plebes". Such treatment was not unique to the Academy and was indicative of the general racism prevalent in the country at the time.

In a series of letters to friends, Smith complained of his mistreatment and of the discrimination he experienced. When some of these letters were published in a newspaper, public controversy arose over his treatment. Cadets at the Academy were convinced that Smith was "pushing too hard" for social equality and was less concerned with receiving a military education. An investigation of Smith's charges was held but ended by declaring that most were unfounded or greatly exaggerated.

A few months later, Smith was court-martialed after an altercation with another cadet. He was found guilty and sentenced to six weekends of extra marching. Smith was court-martialed again for conduct unbecoming a gentleman in early 1871. Once more he was found guilty and the court recommended his dismissal from the Academy. This sentence was set aside by the Secretary of War, but Smith was placed back a year in academic standing and had to repeat his freshman year.

Smith held on for three more years, struggling to maintain his grades and to obtain some degree of acceptance. His demerits decreased but his grades remained low. In June 1874 he was found deficient in natural and experimental philosophy and was dismissed from the Academy. He returned to South Carolina and became an instructor in mathematics and commandant of cadets at the all-black South Carolina Agricultural and Mechanics Institute. Two years later, he died of tuberculosis.



Henry O. Flipper as a cadet

Henry O. Flipper. In 1873, Henry O. Flipper became the second black to enter West Point when he was nominated by James Freeman from Georgia. Flipper endured the same treatment as Smith, but bore it stoically. He too experienced "social outcast" treatment but perhaps because he did not complain publically of his treatment, he was able to graduate in 1877. He was the first black person and the 2690th cadet to do so.

Flipper was commissioned a Second Lieutenant and assigned to the all-black 10th Cavalry in the West. He performed his duties creditably and was at various times stationed at Fort Sill, Fort Elliott, Fort Concho, Fort Davis, and Fort Quitman. Throughout this period he was subjected to verbal abuse by his contemporaries, the press, and held in suspicion by his commanding officers. Finally, he was accused of making false statements and embezzlement. After a court-martial, he was dismissed from the Army for conduct unbecoming an officer and gentleman in 1882.

As a civilian, Flipper was employed as a civil engineer in Arizona, eventually becoming Chief Engineer of a land company in the early 1890's. During this period he translated the mining laws of Mexico into English and compiled and translated Spanish and Mexican Land Laws for the Department of Justice in 1895. In 1921, he was appointed an Assistant to the Secretary of the Interior.

Throughout Flipper's civilian career his integrity was never questioned. He tried repeatedly to have his military record cleared, but was unsuccessful. He died in 1940 at the age of 84 in Atlanta, Georgia.

Efforts to clear Flipper's record continued, however, and in 1976, after four years of work, Mr. Ray O. MacColl, a Georgia school-teacher, successfully appealed Flipper's case to the Army Board for Correction of Military Records. Flipper was granted an honorable discharge. In 1977, Mr. H. Minton Francis, then Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense (Equal Opportunity) in the Office of the Secretary of Defense, worked diligently and accomplished his goal of getting a bust of Flipper placed in the West Point Library in honor of its first black graduate.

John Alexander. Although three other blacks entered the Academy while Flipper was in attendance, non graduated. John W. Williams, Johnson C. Whittaker, and Charles A. Minnie were all determined to be deficient in their studies and dismissed.



John H. Alexander

Ten years after Flipper's graduation, John H. Alexander of Helena, Arkansas was appointed to the Academy. He graduated on June 12, 1887 and was assigned to frontier duty at Fort Robinson, Nebraska. In March 1888, he was transferred to Fort Washakie, Wyoming. Alexander served at a number of other posts in Utah and Nebraska until he was assigned duties as Professor of Military Science and Tactics at Wilberforce University in Wilberforce, Ohio. He died there of heart disease at age 30 in March 1894.

Charles Young. Perhaps one of the most famous and controversial of the black graduates from West Point was Charles Young. he was born in Mayslick, Kentucky in 1861, but educated in Ohio. Upon graduation from high school, he attended Wilberforce University where he was employed as an instructor after graduation. In 1884, he was admitted to West Point. Despite his previous academic success, Young experienced continual academic difficulties while at the Academy. During his first year he was found deficient in mathematics and dismissed. He was readmitted in 1885 after passing a re-examination in math. He persevered and graduated in 1889.

Young began his military career with the Tenth Cavalry and in rapid succession moved to assignments in the 25th Infantry and 9th cavalry, each an all-black unit. In 1894, he was assigned to Wilberforce University as Professor of Military Science and Tactics. When war broke out with Spain in 1898, he left the Army and took a commission as a Major in the Ninth Ohio Volunteer (Colored) Infantry. The unit, however, was never shipped to Cuba and he saw no combat.

In 1899, Young was released from volunteer service and rejoined his old regiment in the Regular Army. Soon

thereafter he was promoted to Captain and, despite a kidney ailment, went to the Philippines where he engaged in anti-guerrilla operations for almost two years. Upon his return to the United States, he was named Superintendent of Sequoia and General Grant National Parks in California.

In May of 1904, Captain Young was appointed as U.S. military attache to Haiti, the first black officer to hold such a position. In 1911 he served in the Office of the Army Chief of Staff, but was soon named military attache to Liberia, where he remained until 1915.

When American forces were mobilized in 1917, it was suggested in the black press that Lieutenant Colonel Young should be named to command a regiment, or larger unit, in the forthcoming conflict. Instead, the War Department retired him from active duty for medical disabilities and then promoted him to full Colonel. Colonel Young objected to his forced retirement. In protest, he mounted his favorite horse and rode from Chillicothe, Ohio to Washington, D.C. to attest to his stamina and to personally appeal for reinstatement to active duty. Many persons argued that he had been retired to prevent his being named to General officer status and to command white troops. Neither their protestations nor his were successful.



Charles Young as a cadet

In 1918, Colonel Young was recalled to active duty with the Ohio National Guard but he was given no command. Finally, in 1919 he was returned to Liberia as military attache where he died in January 1922 from chronic nephritis. He was buried in Arlington National Cemetery.



Colonel Charles Young

B.O. Davis, Jr. From the time Charles Young graduated from the U.S. Military Academy in 1889 to 1929, no black entered the Academy. In 1929, Alonzo Parham was appointed to the Academy by Oscar DePriest of Illinois, but he left after only a year. In 1932, B.O. Davis, Jr., son of the first black general in the Regular Army, entered the Academy and graduated in 1936. His military career is chronicled in the general officers section of this booklet. He was the first black graduate of the U.S. Military Academy to become a general officer in the Regular Army. When he retired, he was the highest ranking black general in the U.S. Armed Forces.

James Fowler. James D. Fowler was born in Georgia, but reared and educated in Washington, D.C. He graduated

from Dunbar High School and Howard University before entering West Point in 1937. Upon graduation in 1941, he was commissioned a Second Lieutenant in the Infantry and served with the 366th Infantry Regiment in Europe from 1944-45. He was awarded the Combat Infantry Badge and the Bronze Star for his valorous European service. Fowler attended the Command and General Staff College in 1951 and was assigned command of an armored infantry battallion from 1951-52. He then served in the Headquarters, USAR Europe from 1952-54 and with a Military Assistance Advisory Group in 1958 when he was awarded the Army Commendation Medal. From 1961-64, Fowler served as the Professor of Military Science at Morgan State College and with the 7th Logistics Command in Korea from 1964-65. His last assignment was as a member of the staff and faculty of the Command and General Staff College from 1965-67. He retired as a full Colonel in 1967.

Clarence Davenport. Clarence M. Davenport, Jr. entered the U.S. Military Academy in 1939 and graduated in 1943. He was commissioned a Second Lieutenant in the Coast Artillery Corps and served in a variety of positions with the 742nd Anti-Aircraft Battalion in the Netherlands East Indies from 1943-46. By the end of World War II, he was a Major and had transferred to the Infantry where he served in a number of positions, including one with the ROTC unit at Hampton Institute. From 1959-60, Davenport served with the Eighth Army in Korea. He retired as a full Colonel in 1972 after successful tours at the Army War College and as a senior member of the U.S. Arms Control and Disarmament Agency.

Robert Tresville. Robert B. Tresville was a classmate of Davenport's at West Point. He was born in Texas and entered the U.S. Military Academy in 1939. Upon graduation in 1943, Tresville became a pilot and was soon promoted to Captain. On June 22, 1944, he was killed during an air

mission in Italy, at age 23, while serving with the 100th Fighter Squadron of the 332nd Fighter Group.

H. Minton Francis. Henry Minton Francis was born and educated in Washington, D.C. He attended Dunbar High School where he was a cadet officer in the school's ROTC battalion. He entered the U.S. Military Academy in 1941 and was commissioned in the Field Artillery in 1944. He served with the 93d Division artillery during 1945 and was then transferred to Europe where he was stationed from 1946-48. In 1949, Francis was assigned to the Office of the Secretary of Defense and stayed until 1952. Upon leaving the Pentagon, he attended the Artillery School in 1953. He obtained an MBA from Syracuse in 1960 and then served with the Army Concept Team in Vietnam from 1962-63. In 1963 Francis commanded an artillery battalion with the 4th Division artillery and was then assigned to the Office of the Army Comptroller from 1964-65. In 1965, Francis retired as a Lieutenant Colonel and pursued a career in private business. In 1973 he was appointed Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense (Equal Opportunity) and served in that capacity until 1977. Upon leaving DoD, he headed the civil rights office at the Veterans Administration and then took a position with Howard University.



H. Minton Francis while serving as Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Equal Opportunity

These black pioneers at the U.S. Military Academy experienced extreme prejudice during their cadet years and often during their military careers. Through their commitment to excellence, diligence, courage, perseverance and subsequent successes, they served as outstanding role models for the number of black cadets to follow in their footsteps. The following list of black graduates, by the number of their names alone, attests to the ultimate success and contributions of these first black cadet "pioneers."

Class of 1877

Flipper, Henry O.

Class of 1887

Alexander, John H.

Class of 1889

Young, Charles D.

Class of 1936

Davis, Benjamin O., Jr.

Class of 1941

Fowler, James D.

Class of 1943

Davenport, Clarence M.

Tresville, Robert B., Jr.

Class of 1944

Francis, Henry M.

Class of 1945

Davis, Ernest J., Jr.

Rivers, Mark E., Jr.

Class of 1946

McCoy, Andrew A., Jr.

Class of 1949

Howard, Edward B.

Smith, Charles L.

Class of 1950

Carlisle, David K.

Green, Robert W.

Class of 1951

Brown, Norman J.

Wainer, Douglas F.

Robinson, Roscoe, Jr.

Woodson, William B.

Young, James R., Jr.

Class of 1953

Corprew, Gerald

Hughes, Bernard C.

Worthy, Clifford

Class of 1954

Lee, Ronald B.

Turner, LeRoy C.

Robinson, Hugh G.

Class of 1955

Hamilton, John M., Jr.

Olive, Lewis C., Jr.

Cassells, Cyrus C., Jr.

Batchman, Gilbert R.

Brown, John M.

Class of 1956

Blunt, Robert R.

Class of 1957

Bradley, Martin G.

McCullom, Cornell, Jr.

Class of 1958

Brunner, Ronald S.

Class of 1959

Baugh, Raymond C.

Kelley, Wilbourne A., III

Class of 1960

Dorsey, Ira

Class of 1961

Brown, Reginald J.

Quinn, Kenneth L.

Class of 1962

Gorden, Fred A.

Class of 1963

Banks, Edgar, Jr.

Jackson, David S.

Ivy, William L.

Handcox, Robert C.

Class of 1964

Miller, Warren F., Jr.

Ramsay, David L.

Class of 1965

Hester, Arthur C.

Anderson, Joseph B.

Jenkins, Harold A., Jr.

Conley, James S.

Class of 1966

Cox, Ronald E.

Davis, Thomas B., III

Ramsay, Robert B.

Class of 1967

Fowler, James D., Jr.

Whaley, Bobby G.

Class of 1968

Martin, John T., III

Garcia, Victor

Jordan, Larry R.

Flowers, Ernest, Jr.

Rotie, Wilson L., Jr.

Outlaw, LeRoy B.

Howard, James T.

Tildon, Ralph B.

Robinson, Benny L.

Copeland, Rene G.

Class of 1969

Tabela, Francis E.

Hackett, Jerome R.

Cooper, Cornelius M., Jr.

Groves, Sheridan H.

Williams, Michael M.

Minor, James A., Jr.

Steele, Michael F.

Cousar, Robert J., Jr.

Class of 1970

Thomas, Kenneth L.

Reid, Trevor A.

Morgan, Roderick H.

Robinson, Bruce E.

Steel, Gary R.

Mason, Robert E.

Price, Willie J.

Class of 1971

Freeman, Robert E.

James Kevin T.

Plummer, William W.

Anderson, Edgar

Brice, David L.

Dedmond, Tony L.

Edwards, Joe F.

Class of 1972

Mension, Danny L.

Squires, Percy

Burns, Cornelius

Class of 1973

Adams, Jesse B.

Bell, Richard, Jr.

Bivens, Courtland C., III

Bonner, Garland C.
 Christopher, Clyde J.
 Coats, Charles S., Jr.
 Coleman, Frederick D.
 Crisp, William Ira
 Edwards, Lawrence D.
 Ferguson, Mercer E.
 Fountain, Foster F., III
 Gains, Michael B.
 Jenkins, Gil S.
 Johnson, Edward C., Jr.
 Lewis, Brett H.
 Martin, Edwin L.
 Moore, William I.
 Perry, William H.
 Robinson, Lenwood, Jr.
 Rowe, Dennis W.
 Sayles, Andre H.
 Sutton, Lloyd I.
 Topping, Gary E.
 Twitty, Theophlise K.

Class of 1974

Anderson, Gary J.
 Banks, Allan A.
 Best, Marshall
 Braxton, Maceo
 Bryant, Albert
 Chachere, Ernest G.
 Elmore, Terry E.
 Fowler, David L.
 Helton, Dwight A.
 Holmes, Keith B.
 Hughes, Samuel J., III
 Hunter, Joseph
 Jones, Harvey D., Jr.
 King, Jimmie D.
 Lewis, Kevin M.
 Lynch, Myron C.
 Mallory, Phillip L.
 Reid, Ronny E.
 Sample, Allen L.
 Spaulding, Milton C.
 Taylor, Theodore R.
 Topping, Gerald W.
 Wallace, Michael D.
 Wheeler, Clayton R.

Class of 1975

Anderson, D. T.
 Armstrong, B. M.
 Austin, L. J., III
 Benn, J. F., Jr.
 Boddie, O. B., Jr.
 Bradley, R.

Briggs-Hall, M. A.
 Brown, A. B. Jr.
 Byrd, J. E.
 Cheese, R. A.
 Dupree, D. W.
 Dyer, A. G.
 Hanford, C. B.
 Harris, D. L.
 Harris, J. W., III
 Hicks, J. E.
 Johnson, E. A., Jr.
 Johnson, R. E.
 Jones, J. D., III
 Jordan, N. C.
 Lewis, S. J.
 Maney, E. K.
 Mooney, D. L.
 Peters, V. M.
 Pinkney, R. M.
 Shaw, E. E., Jr.
 Smith, M. L.
 South, C. H., Jr.
 Taylor, P. L., III
 Thigpen, W. L.
 Williams, D. L.
 Williams, J. P.

Class of 1976

Alexander, M. A.
 Austin, C. W.
 Bivins, D. K.
 Brown, J. L.
 Chase, R. P.
 Collins, L. C.
 Crecy, W. G.
 Crocker, V. B.
 Crofton, W. T.
 Dixon, M. L.
 Elam, A.
 Fields, G.
 Floyd, J. N.
 Grammer, J. K.
 Hayes, A. B.
 Hicks, P. L.
 Jett, S. A.
 Johnson, R. L.
 Little, L. L.
 Louis, V. D.
 Lullen, J. J.
 McKenzie, C.
 Miles, H. A.
 Morgan, E. R.
 Owens, J. F.
 Perry, M. J.
 Pruitt, W. H.

Ricks, S. J.
 Shelton, L. E.
 Simpson, P. R.
 Sims, K. E.
 Slate, L. K.
 Smith, M. A.
 White, M. A.
 Whitlock, W. P.
 Williams, H. M.

Class of 1977

Belcher, Gerald J.
 Beverly, Raymond N.
 Butler, Cranson A.
 Carson, Ivory D.
 Chapman, Reginald K.
 Clark, Edward D.
 Clay, James
 Collins, Vincent R.
 Daily, Anthony B.
 Eugene, Bernhard G.
 Howell, Mitchell A.
 Jackson, Arthur D.
 Jones, Curtis L.
 Lewis, Brett A.
 Lunsford, Joseph M.
 Lynem, Joseph P.
 McFadden, Reginald
 Miott, Rory Q.
 Mitchell, Robert L.
 Mosby, William E.
 Pace, Gerald D.
 Peebles, Darrell
 Ross, James L.
 Sanders, Carl E.
 Scott, Kenneth L.
 Scriber, Phillip H.
 Taliaferro, Jerry
 Terry, William R.
 Thompson, Terrance
 Vaughn, James A.
 Washington, Donald
 Williams, Calvin
 Wilson, Alfred A.
 Wilson, Michael B.

Class of 1978

Adams, D. C.
 Allen, C. D.
 Alston, L. M.
 Bassa, R. L.
 Beatty, W. D.
 Bastick, T. P.
 Bowman, Q. V.
 Bulls, H. E.

Cade, B. D.
 Carter, R. L.
 Clark, M. C.
 Collins, T. W.
 English, M. A.
 Ford, S. H.
 Fore, H. R.
 Fry, D. L.
 Grant, R. A.
 Hall, M. H.
 Hamilton, W.
 Hargrove, P. H.
 Harris, C. A.
 Herndon, H. E.
 Hollingsworth, J.
 Holman, S. E.
 Johns, O. H.
 Johnson, H. E.
 Jourdan, L. T.
 King, G.
 Landry, P. G.
 Lewis, D. G.
 Mallory, R. P.
 Martin, Q. R.
 Miles, F. M.
 Mingilton, M. D.
 Mitchell, C.
 Mobley, D. L.
 Moseley, D. L.
 Moseley, M. M.
 Moye, M. D.
 Nixon, W. J.
 Owens, C. D.
 Ouslley, G. M.
 Pilgrim, C. F.
 Price, W. W.
 Scribner, C. F.
 Seaton, M. J.
 Smith, C.
 Taylor, T. T.
 White, W. L.
 Wilson, K. H.
 Winton, G. J.
 Young, V. J.

Class of 1979

Adams, William D.
 Ash, Toney L.
 Austin, Michael D.
 Balom, Curtis, II
 Beasley, Michael D.
 Bonds, Marcus B.
 Brannon, Gregory K.
 Brooks, Leo A.
 Brundidge, Clennie

Bullard, Edward J.
 Clark, David C.
 Clemons, Edward F.
 Darlington, Loyd
 Deramus, Lawrence D.
 Fowlkes, Essex
 Fuller, Duane E.
 Gordon, Robert L.
 Griffin, Wesley B.
 Hall, Kevin L.
 Hardrick, Harold S.
 Hooper Charles W.
 Howard, Maroc L.
 Hughes, Bernard C.
 Jackson, Stanley M.
 Jennings, Tony O.
 Macklin, Philip D.
 McCall, James T.
 McKissick, Isacc V.
 Miller, Kevin L.
 Mitchell, Chris T.
 Oliver, Joseph P.
 Petit, Jules G.
 Pettus, Carlous T.
 Sears, Walter A.
 Sledge, Nathaniel H.
 Sobers, Arthur A.
 Staten, Michael U.
 Stewart, John
 Tabler, Anthony D.
 Taylor, Clarence E.
 Traylor, Jimmie L.
 Veney, David W.
 Walter, Clifford S.
 Wilkerson, Joseph W.
 Williams, C., Jr.
 Williams, James I.
 Williams, Thomas
 Willis, Michael B.
 Yancey, David T.
 Yeldell, Anthony L.

Class of 1980

Beans, Michael K.
 Bland, Andrew R.
 Brooks, Vincent K.
 Dallas, Joy S.
 Dennis, Daryl C.
 Ellerbe, Michael D.
 Gayle, Michael D.
 Gillis, Reginald R.
 Grace, Karl F.
 Grayer, Curtis A.
 Harrington, W. D.
 Hervey, George A.

Hilliard, John F.
 Jones, Ernest W.
 Jones, Jeffery
 Laney, Mark N.
 Mattingly, John A.
 Mays, George S.
 Miles, Lloyd
 Perdue, Rodney
 Rivers, Eddie L.
 Robinson, Hugh G.
 Scott, James C.
 Shepherd, Gilbert
 Sledge, William T.
 Stephens, Gregory B.
 Strode, Tollie
 Turner, Henry C.
 Walter, Priscilla

Class of 1981

Bland, Melvin H.
 Britton, Randy A.
 Cook, Jeffrey S.
 Cooper, Kieth L.
 David, James E.
 Davis, Archie L.
 Delahoussaye, P. J.
 Evans, Leroy M.
 Freeman, Thomas
 Gates, James A.
 Gibson, Byron J.
 Grady, Norman M.
 Graham, David G.
 Green, Emmett, F.
 Hall, Kimetha G.
 Harris, Daryl E.
 Hembrey, James E.
 Hill, James B.
 Hines, Curtis T.
 Jackson, Christopher H.
 Johnson, Hiram N.
 Lambright, Michael
 Luster, Robert A.
 Lyons, Dereck E.
 Mazyck, Alphonse F.
 Miner, Michael D.
 Peterson, Darryl W.
 Petty, James E.
 Pittard, Dana J.
 Polite, Anita M.
 Porter, Ronald A.
 Pullen, Harvey L.
 Reid, Carlton B.
 Shields, Robert L.
 Somersall, Paul O.
 Streets, Kevin A.

Stroud, Andrew B.
 Taylor, John J.
 Thompson, Kevin S.
 Topping, Kenneth L.
 Turrentine, Larry C.
 Webb, Anthony V.
 Wilkins, Stephen M.
 Williams, Eddie E.
 Williams, Michael G.
 Wilson, Duane K.

Class of 1982

Almore, Arthur
 Austin, Stanley
 Bell, Oliver J.
 Bennett, Jerry
 Bland, Christopher
 Boston, Stephen
 Boutte, Brian M.
 Callahan, Dennis
 Cofield, William
 Coleman, Joseph*
 Dabney, Harold
 Dodson, Walter
 Dunn, James F.
 Goodwin, Michael
 Grammer, Nadja (female)
 Hackney, John K.
 Hargraves, William
 Harris, David D.
 Heard, Lance
 Hervey, Cardell Jr.**
 Hollifield, Rodney
 Johnson, Chris
 Jones, Emmett
 Jones, Kermit
 Knotts, Lester
 Lowry, William I.
 Malloy, Brian
 Miller, Cliff
 Mosby, Stewart
 Perry, Benjamin II
 Powell, Webster
 Skinner, Eugene
 Spencer, Michael
 Terry, Gary L.**

Thomas, David L.
 Wilkins, David
 Williams, Gary
 Wilmer, Archie III**
 Wynder, Allen
 Taylor, Howard A.
 *Graduated June
 **Graduated December 1982

Class of 1983

Alexander, William
 Allen, Clinton O.
 Allen, William T.
 Babers, Charles R.
 Bell, Jonathan A.
 Copeland, Anthony E.
 Crumlin, Michael A.
 Crutcher, Charlie W.
 Daniel, Jeffrey Arnaz
 Davis, Alfrazier
 Fitzgerald, Gregory S.
 Foster, Steven P.
 Gates, Willie E.
 George, Marc C.
 Hamilton, Marcus K.
 Hayes, Morris G.
 Hopson, Mark J.
 Jackson, Julius
 Jackson, Libby A.
 Johnson, Christine
 Lighthall, Donnell
 McFadden, Willie J.
 Morgan, Thomas Jr.
 Neason, Clarence Jr.
 Newkirk, Brian T.
 Oakes, Patrick B.
 Pruitt, Larry H.
 Rodriguez, Anthony P.
 Thomas, Johnny F.
 Thompson, James A.
 Vaughn, John K.
 Walker, Gerald J.
 Williams, Cardell
 Williams, Darryl A.
 Williams, Michael K.

Class of 1984

Armstrong, Bryan J.
 Baldwin, Cleophas
 Boyd, Daniel O.
 Bradley, Sherry J.
 Brown, Kenneth
 Celestan, Gregory J.
 Cobb, Alma J.
 Cuerington, Andre M.
 Delphin, Julie A.
 Dow, Thurman E.
 Gamble, Eddie L.
 Gardner, Kelvin G.
 Gaston, Angela M.
 Grayer, Gerren S.
 Holiday, Hershel L.
 Howard, Rory J.
 Johnson, Derek
 Jones, Kevin
 Lamber, Alexander L. II
 McCloud, William P.
 McNair, Kerry V.
 Mickens, Stanley V.
 Morgan, Gregory L.
 Myhand, Rickey C.
 Newsome, Earl
 Oatis, Demetrius C.
 Oliver, Ernest M.
 Reeve, Darryl K.
 Rhodes, Robert E.
 Richardson, Ricky W.
 Robinson, Bruce E.
 Rogers, Beverly Y.
 Shaw, Everett M.
 Sistrunk, Thomas M. III
 Smith, Daryl G.
 Smith, Troy L.
 Tai, Neville P.
 Thomas, Fern J.
 Tunnell, Harry D.
 Waters, Anthony J.
 Watford, Roslyn A.
 White, Ronald O.
 Watson, Tee Gee

Blacks at the Academy Today

In 1968, the Academy established an Equal Admissions Opportunity Program with the goal of increasing the number of minority cadets to insure that the Corps of Cadets was representative of the national population. The efforts of the program were immediately obvious as the number of minorities entering the Academy increased from 17 in 1968 to 77 in 1969. Since 1968, the number of black cadets has grown significantly as attested to by the number of graduates listed earlier. Blacks are now an integral part of the Academy and have participated in all aspects of life at the Academy.

In 1975, Cadet Robert E. Johnson became the first black captain of the U.S. Military Academy football team and also served as a battalion commander during his senior year. He was diagnosed as having cancer while

attending the Academy. His struggle through multiple operations and radiation treatments became an inspiration to his fellow cadets. His dynamic personality enabled him to maintain a positive attitude and persistent optimism throughout his ordeal. His efforts were rewarded when he was designated national chairperson of the American Cancer Society national fund raising campaign and was honored at the White House by President Gerald Ford.

In 1979, Vincent K. Brooks was designated as the first black to serve as First Captain and Brigade Commander of the Corps of Cadets. In this position he joined a select group whose membership includes Robert E. Lee, John J. Pershing, and Douglas MacArthur. His strong self-discipline and determination to succeed should produce further accomplishments through his military career.





The United States Naval Academy

Annapolis, Maryland



History of the Naval Academy

The education of naval officers in the fledgling U.S. Navy of the late 1700's was based upon the system used by the British Navy - practical experience. Young men were appointed by the President or the Secretary of the Navy, upon recommendation of members of Congress. Designated as midshipmen, a term originally used to designate an experienced seaman stationed amid ships to relay orders fore and aft, they were essentially apprenticed aboard ship to learn their trade by doing. A more formal system of education was recommended by John Paul Jones in 1783. He proposed an academy in each American naval yard to teach mathematics and mechanics to young officers prior to their obtaining practical experience aboard ship. The Continental Navy was abolished after the American Revolution, however, and his proposal was never seriously considered.

When the Navy was reestablished in 1794, the question of officer education arose once more. Alexander Hamilton proposed a combined military education system with a basic course at West Point and specialized schools for engineers and artillery, infantry and cavalry, and the navy to follow. His proposal was rejected. In the early 1800's a chaplain was placed aboard each ship with the added responsibility to teach writing, mathematics and navigation to the midshipmen.

The argument for a permanent shore school was continuously raised and rejected. It took the dual shocks of a mutiny aboard a U.S. brig, which was planned and conducted by midshipmen who were then tried and hung aboard ship in 1842, and the introduction of steam power, which revolutionized naval strategy, to create an atmosphere conducive to the establishment of a permanent, shore based educational system.

In 1845, Secretary of the Navy George Bancroft, using a combination of bureaucratic maneuvering and political influence, established a Naval School for the more efficient training of young naval officers. In 1850-51, Congress recognized the Secretary's fait accompli and funded the U.S. Naval Academy in Annapolis, Maryland. Fifty-six midshipmen attended the first class. During the Civil War, the instructors and midshipmen were moved to Newport, Rhode Island to more secure facilities but they were returned to Annapolis after the war.

Blacks Enter the Academy

James Conyers, a young black man, was appointed to the Academy in September 1872, by his Congressman from South Carolina. According to contemporary accounts, Conyers' appointment hit the Academy like a "bombshell". Controversy immediately erupted as midshipmen, faculty, and the interested general public debated the issue of his attendance. The question, as seen by one historian, was "whether or not a negro could take his place in the hierarchy of a warship and secure not only the necessary recognition from his immediate associates, but be able to maintain the discipline and enforce the respect incident thereto from the crew."

Although most of the faculty were Civil War veterans and had fought for emancipation, few had anticipated the presence of a black at the Academy so soon after the war. In addition, hazing among the midshipmen had become a major problem and many feared that Conyers would be tormented by his fellow students. Although some incidents did occur, Conyers bore them stoically, eventually, however, he was found to be apparently deficient in two courses, mathematics and French. He resigned in 1873.

In September 1873, a second black midshipmen, Alonzo McClennan, was appointed from South Carolina. He resigned in 1874, after only six months at the Academy. Henry E. Baker, Jr. was the third black to enter the Academy in September 1874, but he was dismissed for disciplinary reasons within two months. A black was not to enter the Academy again until 1936.

In June 1936, James Johnson was appointed to the Naval Academy from Illinois. He attended classes for only eight months and then resigned for reasons of poor health. George Trivers entered the Academy in 1937, but he also resigned - this time within a month of his appointment - for reasons of poor grades in deportment and English. These two resignations lead to protests by black organizations. They claimed that Johnson had been discriminated against in the hazing he received from fellow midshipmen and in the grades that he received from the white faculty.

The mission of the U.S. Naval Academy is to "develop midshipmen morally, mentally, and physically and to imbue them with the highest ideals of duty, honor and loyalty in order to provide graduates who are dedicated to a career of naval service and have potential for future development in mind and character to assume the highest responsibilities of command, citizenship and government." Many critics suggested that these ideals were not being met in the admission and treatment of black midshipmen.

The First Black Graduate

In June 1945, Representative Adam Clayton Powell, Jr. of New York appointed Wesley A. Brown of Washington, D.C. to the Academy. Brown, born in Maryland, had attended school in the District where he was encouraged by

teachers at Dunbar High School to seek a military career. While at the Academy, Brown participated in sports (tennis and track) and clubs (German, chess, and photography) in addition to his academic pursuits. During his plebe (first) year, Brown experienced severe harassment from some upper-classmen and was continually upbraided and given demerits on the slightest provocation. Gradually, however, he earned the acceptance of his classmates and later stated that he had received impartial treatment from his instructors. He became the first black and the 20,699th midshipman to graduate in June 1949. He eventually retired from the Navy as a Lieutenant Commander. Lawrence C. Chambers, the second black to graduate from the Naval Academy in 1952, recently retired from the Navy as a Rear Admiral.



Wesley A. Brown as a midshipman

Black attendance at the Academy grew slowly, but steadily, throughout the following years as the roster of black graduates below indicates.

Class of 1949

Brown, W. A.

Class of 1952

Chambers, L. C.

Class of 1953

Taylor, R. R.

Class of 1954

Raiford, J. D.

Class of 1955

Gregg, L. P.

Class of 1956

Baudit, H. S.

Sechrest, E. A.

Class of 1957

Jamison, V. L.

Slaughter, K. W.

Class of 1958

Fennell, G. M., Jr.

Class of 1959

Bruce, M. D.

Bush, W. S., III

Clark, M. E.

Powell, W. E.

Class of 1961

Byrd, W. Z.

Johnson, M., Jr.

Shelton, J. A.

Class of 1962

Jackson, J. T.

McCray, D.

Class of 1963

Newton, R. C.

Class of 1964

Jones, W. C.

McDonald, J. F., Jr.

Prout, P. M.

Thomas, B. F.

Class of 1965

Carter, S. J., Jr.

Grayson, F. F., Jr.

Reason, J. P.

Class of 1967

Huey, C. W.

Tzomes, C. A.

Class of 1968

Bolden, C. F., Jr.

Clark, W. S., Jr.

Lucas, R. G.

Simmons, D. F.

Class of 1969

Carr, E. F.

Jones, F. E.

Class of 1970

Freeman, J. B.

Greene, E. L.

Henry, B. A.

Roberts, M. C.

Watson, A. J.

Williams, L. V.

Class of 1971

Collier, C. M.

Porter, J. F.

Shaw, H. M., Jr.

Class of 1972

Burnette, E. A.

Coleman, A. B.

Crump, W. L., Jr.

Jones, N. M.

Keaser, L. W.

Lovely, E.

Mason, M. T.

McMillian, J. A.

Rucks, C. H.

Smith, E. M.

Staton, E. M.

Tindall, J. S.

Class of 1973

Calhoun, L. W.

Caliman, K. H.

Campbell, J. H.

Evans, W. G.

Faust, H. L.

Jackson, J. E.

Jones, L. W.

Kennard, W. M.

Samuels, R. G.

Shockley, R. L.

Watts, R. D.

Young, E. C.

Class of 1974

Corpin, O. D.

Dunn, K. D.

Jolly, E. L.

Kirk, F. L.

Minor, T. E.

Montgomery, D.

Rasin, S. E.

Robinson, C.

Tate, J. D.

Class of 1975

Ardine, J. E.

Baily, C. E.

Everet, W. M.

Graves, B. E.

Grover, R. O.

Hampton, M. L.

Hargrove, C.

Haris, W. M.

Jackson, D. E.

Jackson, J. T.

Lawson, H.

Merrell, W.

Miller, K. E.

Montgomery, W. J.

Nollie, T. C.

Robinson, J. W.

Russell, D.

Washington, M. B.

Watson, L. J.

Williams, R. B.

Willis, C. J.

Class of 1976

Bass, R. G.

Boyd, C. C., Jr.

Clark, A. W., Jr.

Brown, C. A.
Cole, C.
Curtis, D. C.
Davis, N., Jr.
Dennis, J. I.
Ellis, R. L.
Epps, J. B.
Ford, E., Jr.
Franklin, D. W.
Giron, B. A.
Halton, E. S.
Harris, W. J.
Hicks, G. R.
Holmes, E. I.
Howard, R.
Jenkins, G.
Lassiter, I. W.
Leonard, K. E.
Liscomb, J. C.
Littlejohn, G. A.
Miles, D. A.
Mitchell, R. I.
Moore, G.
Owens, I. H.
Paulding, O.
Payton, L., Jr.
Pritchett, R. R.
Queen, G. A.
Reddix, M. C.
Sears, W. T.
Sharperson, C. H.
Smith, J. B., Jr.
Sparks, J. E., Jr.
Stevens, M. K.
Walton, D. F.
Woumm, E. D.

Class of 1977

Adair, S. A.
Almeida, J. M.
Anderson, K.
Bonner, D. R.
Booker, C. B.
Booker, R. L.
Brinkly, R. W.
Bruce, P. J.
Burns, M. W.
Byrd, G. L.
Caeser, J. S.
Caldwell, R. L.
Campbell, A. L.
Clay, J. L.
Cook, D.
Davis, P. L. E.
Deane, L. E.

Dory, C. E.
Ellison, W. L., Jr.
Faulkner, R. M.
Floyd, M. L.
Foster, A. P.
Franklin, D. E.
Freeman, D. W.
Garcia, B. A.
Gilmore, E. J.
Goodrum, R. A.
Graham, D. F.
Gray, S. G.
Hallman, C.
Handy, C. D.
Hardy, J. T., Jr.
Harrington, J.
Hill, M. L.
Hithon, C. J.
Ivey, C. G.
Jackson, L., Jr.
Lee, S., Jr.
Lockett, K. V.
Lockley, J.
Long, A., IV
McNair, E. R.
McNeil, R. A.
Mitchell, R. V.
Nacoste, P. J.
Ray, D. D.
Rogers, M. L.
Roxe, M. V.
Sapp, J. K.
Sawyer, G. R.
Schoolfield, D. J.
Seldon, R. W.
Smith, J. W.
Station, G. V.
Trass, K. R.
Tucker, M.
Turner, E. A.
Valentine, J.
Washington, V. L.
Wright, E. J.

Class of 1978

Abernethy, T. S.
Anderson, D. E.
Andre, C. A.
Bramlett, L.
Carter, B. W.
Cato, A. M.
Cook, D.
Crawford, T.
Dyer, M. A.
Fields, M. H.

Flanagan, G.
Goodman, R. O., Jr.
Guillory, V. G.
Haney, C. E. D.
Harris, B. F.
Johnson, M. R.
Johnston, M. R.
Jones, S. E.
Jubert, G. A.
King, M. E.
Knight, R. L.
Marchant, B. F.
Meadows, F. J.
Miller, L. E.
Moore, C. E.
Mosley, E. K.
Newby, L. D.
Perry, C. A.
Peterson, J. C., Jr.
Prince, L. O., Jr.
Reddick, M. P., Jr.
Redvict, P. C.
Robinson, W. I.
Saddler, M. R.
Scott, R. W.
Sears, M. E.
Stallings, J. B.
Taylor, R. R.
Thompson, L. B.
Williams, A.
Williams, M. G., Jr.
Winns, A. L.
Wood, D. L.
Woods, H. M.
Wray, K. L.
Young, O. W.

Class of 1979

Adams, J., Jr.
Allen, M. T.
Ballard, W. W.
Beam, D. A.
Berry, E. C.
Brooks, S. E.
Burrell, A. K.
Cousin, D. G.
Darring, P. L.
Gibson, M. A.
Green, N. B.
Jackson, K. L.
Johnson, A. J., Jr.
Johnson, M. D.
Jones, H.
Jones, L. H., Jr.

Jones, S. A.
 Lewis, W. D.
 Martin, W. B.
 Massie, W. R.
 McCoy, L. J.
 McKenzie, S. S.
 Miller, A. B.
 Monroe, G. A.
 Norgrove, K. E.
 Smith, A. R.
 Wilder, C. R.
 Wise, J. E.
 Womack, K.
 Woodward, C. C., Jr.

Class of 1980

Atkins, M.
 Barnhill, L.
 Bradley, E.
 Brown, G. V.
 Burks, L. J.
 Carmichael, B.
 Character, D.
 Clark, C. B.
 Clark, I. R., Jr.
 Coker, M., Jr.
 Colvin, J. T.
 Cooper, S. L.
 Cornish, B. F.
 Dancy, J. G.
 Daniel, F.
 Dennis, D. C.
 Figgins, R. L.
 Gay, E. L.
 Grooms, B. E.
 Hodge, R. R.
 Jackson, B. K.
 Jiles, A. W.
 Johnson, R.
 Johnson, R.
 Josia, A. H.
 Mack, T. A.
 Manns, E.
 McCauley, L. H.
 Meyers, C. L.
 Mines, J. L.
 Minor, I. L.
 Mosley, A. S.
 Nemecek, R. A.
 Paul, W.
 Raymond, D. K.
 Shorts, V.
 Smith, B. E.
 Smith, V. C.
 Sneed, M.

Thompson, C.
 Thornton, C.
 Trass, R. E.
 Vonlipsey, R. K.
 Walker, J. L.
 White, T.
 Williams, N.
 Wilson, C. A.

Class of 1981

Abernathy, R.
 Bailey, P. E.
 Barnes, A. P.
 Brownlee, E.
 Butler, R. A.
 Coker, T.
 Curry, B.
 Denkler, G.
 Evans, W. T.
 Gainer, C.
 Green, L. R.
 Gross, K. J.
 Harness, K. N.
 Herrod, A. L.
 Howard, A. M.
 Jackson, B. D.
 Jackson, R. C., III
 Knock, J. A.
 Lee, F. A.
 McCree, V.
 McElroy, D. M.
 Mines, G.
 Nixon, M.
 Oliver, B. C.
 Pace, G. H.
 Perez, M. C.
 Reaves, J. C.
 Redden, S. D.
 Ricks, D. L.
 Roberts, W.
 Swoope, A. M.
 Taylor, R. L.
 Thomas, A. A.
 Tolbert, K. C.
 Ware, R. E.
 Weems, R. A.

Class of 1982

Banks, Mark E.
 Baptiste, Barry
 Batchlor, Charles D.
 Bates, Andre Yannick
 Baugh, Kevin A.
 Bennett, Donald C.
 Butts, William S.

Carodine, Charles K.
 Cole, Patricia
 Davis, Noel M.
 Dixon, Dominic S.
 Ferrell, Theodore J.
 Gay, William H.
 Goodson, Earl F.
 Gray, Alison M.
 Hayes, Vidal E.
 Hazzard, Donna M.
 Howard, Michaelle J.
 Johnston, Michael J.
 Leisch, Jody K.
 Malcolm, Michael W.
 McClain, Joseph S.
 McLeod, Myles L.
 Meyers, Edward A.
 Morris, Michael
 Nobles, Walter E.
 Odom, Arthaneous A.
 Palmer, David K.
 Parker, Carl T.
 Reagans, Elliott
 Rogers, William III
 Simmons, Jon Myron
 Terrell, Wayne A.
 Tondou, Jennifer
 Watson, Rory K.
 Wiggins, Clarence A.
 Williams, Anthony
 Wimbush, Nelson W. II
 Yelder, Christopher E.

Class of 1983

Alexander, Catherine D.
 Barclift, Michael R.
 Battle, John Clayborne
 Bedell, Kevin Fredric
 Blackwell, Jacqueline
 Blake, James A.
 Brannon, Troy E.
 Butler, Christopher L.
 Carter, George R.
 Clark, Jerome A.
 Coles, James R. III
 Crockett, Jerry M.
 Deberry, Dennis
 Edmondson, Michael J.
 Fears, George Michael
 Finley, Julian G.
 Gatson, Darryl Keith
 Hale, Kevin T.
 Hester, Gina Loraine
 Hicks, Warren T.
 Hundley, Herbert

Jackson, Eric Keith
Jackson, Stephen Mark
James, Kenneth Angelo
Jones, Eugene Weston
Lakins, Darryl David
Mackay, Leo Sidney Jr.
Martin, Robert Cason
McClusky, Kenneth W.
McCoy, Angelo A.
McNeil, Franklin N. Jr.
Miller, Kevin Lavord
Mitchell, Troy Michael
Moore, Richard A.
Posey, Brian Wenford
Reed, Michael R.
Roane, Elmer W., Jr.
Rupp, John
Scisum, Adolph C.
Smith, Henry C.
Smith, Leonard, Jr.
Thames, Tyrone M.
Tyree, William D., III
Wallington, Joseph T.
Waye, Reginald B.
Williams, Leo W. II

Williams, Yolanda Y.
Wilson, Joe David Jr.
Wilson, Kenneth
Wrice, Jesse Edward Jr.

Class of 1984

Abbott, Denise Michelle
Andrews, Jeffrey Alan
Andrews, Tae Wan
Baker, Beverly Muriel
Brown, Conrad Nelson Jr.
Brown, Jeffrey Darryl
Clayton, Eric Von
Curbeam, Robert Lee Jr.
Darden, Ronald Karl
Davis, Jacqueline Renee
Fegan, Frederick Morris
Flaggs, Moreatha Yvette
Fortune, Idean Josephine II
Gaines, Leonard Salmon
Hosch, Willie H.
Howard, James Heyward
Howard, Kevin Thomas
Hudson, Derek Dewitt
Jones, Michael Lawrence

Kizzee, Carlos Perry
Law, Leitia Lynne
Manning, Cameron Alan
Marshall, Lawrence Eugene
McDonald, Ronald Keith
McKinney, Billy Lynn
Neal, Sherman Evon
Newhouse, Darryl Brian
Nixon, Rnadall Lamar
Peoples, Gerald Keith
Price, Lenny Francis
Rasbury, Stanley Okoye
Shepherd, Michael Andrew
Skinner, Steven Gregory
Smith, David Hanson
Smith, Jonathan Jerome
Stevens, Monica
Taylor, James Jr.
Tillman, Willard Jr.
Turner, Jean-Francois
Walton, Terrance Bernard
Wilson, Joslyn Grant Jr.
Wilson, Woodrow III
Wright, Darin Claude

Blacks at the Naval Academy Today



Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy

The Class of 1984, which was admitted in June 1980, contained 15% racial and ethnic minorities and the Naval Academy is actively recruiting increased numbers of minorities. While only 35 blacks graduated from the Academy in the period 1949-1969, 289 graduated during the years 1970-1980 and constituted almost 3% of all graduates during that period. Other minorities comprised an additional 2.2% of all graduates in the period 1970-1980. As of April 1981, there were 550 minority midshipmen out of 4391 in the entire student body, of that number, 174 were black men and 24 were black women.



Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy

The student body at the Academy is organized into thirty-six companies which are aggregated into six battalions and two regiments which form the Brigade of Midshipmen. The highest ranking midshipman is the Brigade Commander and in the

academic year 1981-82, that person is Walter Nobles, the first black to hold that position. During the previous summer, Nobles had served as Regimental Commander and was responsible for the initiation and basic training of the entering plebe class.

Born and reared in New York, Nobles credits the Academy with giving him self-confidence, competence, perserverance, and organizational ability, he sees his command assignment as an opportunity to pass on these qualities to others in the Brigade. A physical science major, Walter has also served as his class treasurer for four years, sports editor for the freshman year book, and has participated in a number of clubs and committies. He anticipates a career as a Marine or as a line officer aboard ship.



Walter Nobles

Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy



Walter Nobles during plebe training

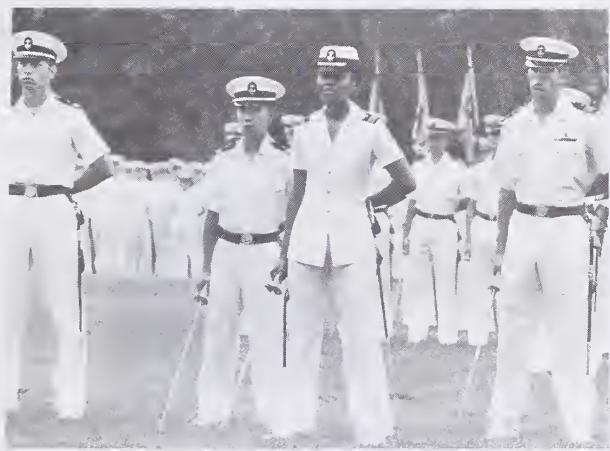
Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy

Black Women at the Academy

Women were first admitted to the Naval Academy in 1976 when eighty-one women entered. As of April 1981, there were 276 women at the Academy or 6.3% of the Brigade; of that number, twenty-four were black. Janie L. Mines of Aiken, South Carolina was the first and only black woman to enter the Academy in 1976. A member of the Navy Junior ROTC unit at her high school, Mines had decided upon a military career in the Marines. However, in 1978 she knocked her kneecap out of place and was no longer able to pass the Marine physical.

A political science major at the Academy, Mines also held leadership positions as squad leader, midshipman drill officer, and regimental adjutant. Her status as the first black woman at the Academy and her leadership positions made her a natural role model and informal counselor for the other women.

Though her own experience was not an easy one, Mines felt that her most valuable lesson at the Academy was to learn to deal with the system, even though it is often a disillusioning process and progress is always slow.



Janie L. Mines

Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy

In 1980, Mines became the first black woman to graduate from the Naval Academy and after training as a supply officer, Ensign Mines was assigned to supervise three dining halls at the Naval Training Center in Orlando, Florida.

Janie Mines' sister, Gwen Mines, followed her to the Academy in 1977 where she was one of three blacks in an entering group of sixty women. She also majored in political science and served as battalion supply officer and captain of the Academy's fencing team. Gwen Mines graduated in 1981 and was commissioned a Second Lieutenant in the Marine Corps. She plans eventually to become a military lawyer.

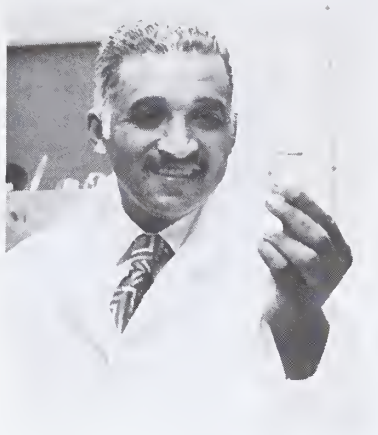


Gwen Mines at Graduation

Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy

Faculty

When Dr. Samuel P. Massie joined the Chemistry Department of the Naval Academy in 1966, he became the first black faculty member in the institution's history. A native of Little Rock, Arkansas, Dr. Massie attended local schools and graduated from high school at age 13. He continued his rapid educational process by receiving a Bachelor of Science in Chemistry and graduating summa cum laude from Arkansas A.M.N. college at age 18. Later he received graduate degrees at Fisk University and Iowa State University.

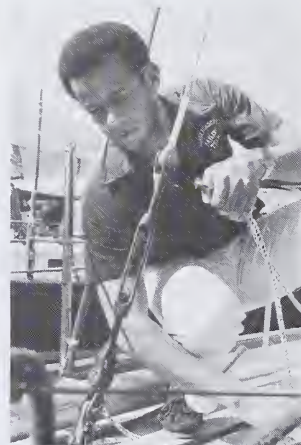


Dr. Samuel P. Massie
Photo Courtesy: U.S. Naval Academy

During World War II, Dr. Massie participated in military research and worked on chemical warfare agents, antimalarial agents, and the atomic bomb. After the war he joined Eastman Kodak as a research chemist, but soon returned to the campus life, accepting positions at Langston University, Fisk University, and Howard University. From Howard, Dr. Massie went to the National Science Foundation where he directed a major undergraduate equipment program. In 1963, he was named President of the North Carolina College at Durham where he stayed until joining the Academy. From 1977-1980, Dr. Massie served as chairman of the chemistry department at the Naval Academy.

Throughout his teaching career at the Naval Academy, Dr. Massie has conducted drug and cancer research as well as participating in several scientific and community organizations. He has received over 45 research grants and has published more than 25 scientific papers. Currently, he is conducting antimalarial research in cooperation with Walter Reed Army Institute and is writing a series of fourteen articles on outstanding black chemists. Most recently, Dr. Massie was named to chair the Governor's Science Advisory Council for the State of Maryland.

As a result of the efforts and sacrifices of persons such as Dr. Massie, Wesley Brown, and others, black midshipmen today have a strong heritage of accomplishment and success.





The United States Air Force Academy

Colorado Springs,
Colorado



History of the Air Force Academy

Military aviation is basically a twentieth century phenomenon.

On December 17, 1903, Wilbur and Orville Wright made world history when they flew their heavier than air machine for fifty-nine seconds over 852 feet of North Carolina soil. Within two years they were making controlled flights of over twenty miles and lasting more than thirty minutes. In 1907, the Army Signal Corps was authorized to establish an Aeronautical Division and to test the military applications of this new machine.

When the United States entered World War I in 1917, it did not possess a single armed aircraft. The European powers, as a result of their wartime experiences, had surpassed the pioneering American efforts. Consequently, all American pilots flew British and French planes in combat throughout the war. There were no blacks in the newly created Army Air Service and Eugene Jacques Bullard, whose story has been highlighted in an earlier article, is the only black American known to have flown in combat during the war.

When the war ended, the American military was demobilized and development of American war planes lagged behind efforts in Europe. The Army Air Corps (AAC) remained a skeleton force throughout the 1930's. Blacks were excluded from the AAC despite efforts by the NAACP and other black organizations to pressure the War Department into accepting blacks as pilots or ground crew members.

In 1940, the United States began to mobilize for war and large increases were authorized in aircraft procurement and AAC staffing levels. The military was unable to rapidly train large numbers of flight crews on its own, so a number of pilot training programs were established

and several black flight schools were sponsored by the AAC. None of the graduates from the black flight schools were accepted for service. Finally, in 1941, under threat of lawsuits and increased political pressure, the AAC established one squadron to be staffed solely by blacks. In July, the Tuskegee Army Air Field was founded to train black pilots.

At the end of the war, the Army Air Forces was severely reduced to about one seventh its wartime size. In 1947, the National Security Act reorganized the U.S. military forces once again and created a separate United States Air Force (USAF), in the new Department of Defense (DoD).

In 1950, a Service Academy Board reported to the Secretary of Defense and recommended that an Air Force Academy be created. Four years later, on April 1, 1954, Congress authorized the establishment of an academy. Eventually, an 18,000 acre site, seventy miles south of Denver, Colorado was chosen for the new academy's location. While the facilities were under construction, an interim school was established at Lowry Air Force Base in Denver and in July, 1955, the first class of 306 cadets was sworn in. In August 1958, the new academy was opened and the first class graduated in June, 1959.

Blacks at the Academy

The first blacks to enter the Air Force Academy were Charles V. Bush, Isaac S. Payne, IV, and Roger B. Sims in 1959. All three graduated in 1963. Since that modest beginning, black attendance at the Academy has grown as the following roster of graduates indicates:

Class of 1963

Bush, Charles Vernon
Payne, Isaac Sanders, IV
Sims, Roger Bernard

Class of 1964

Gregory, Frederick Drew

Class of 1965

Beamon, Arthur Leon
Plummer, Bentley Vaughn
Thomas, Charles Albert
Wiley, Fletcher Houston

Class of 1967

Cunningham, Thomas Lee

Class of 1968

Ecung, Maurice
Gibson, Samuel Bernard
Groves, Weldon Kenneth, Jr.
Marshall, Marion Anthony
Moore, Francis Martin
Thompson, James Edward

Class of 1969

Hopper, John Dowl, Jr.
Howland, Walter Theodore
Little, Kenneth Harlan
Love, James Edward
Spooner, Richard Edward
Stevenson, Kenneth Edward, Jr.

Class of 1970

Arnold, Harry
Battles, Dorsey Barry
Bowie, Harold Valtino, Jr.
Bryant, Robert Steven
Elliott, Norman Lynn
Jones, Reuben David, Jr.
Keys, George Randolph, Jr.
Mohr, Dean Burgette, Jr.

Class of 1971

Banks, Reginald Irving
Edmondson, William Emanuel
Jennings, Ernest Ray

Martin, Curtis Jerone
Rogers, Robert Pius, Jr.
Sprott, Robert Edsel
Watson, Orrin Sherman
White, Leon Gregory
Wimberley, Bruce Paul

Class of 1972

Bassa, Paul, Jr.
Brown, Ralph Benjamin, Jr.
Harrison, Booker
Henderson, Clyde Ray
Jones, Raymond John
McDonald, Michael
Meredith, Keith Sarrono
Nelson, Michael Vincent
Parks, Reginald Darnell
Rhaney, Mahlon Clifton, Jr.
Ross, Joseph Dean, Jr.
Rucker, Raymond Ivon, Jr.
Slade, John Benjamin, Jr.

Class of 1973

Abraham, Robert Earl
Baker, Richard Alphonso
Bolton, Robert Marcus
Butler, Ernest Edgar, Jr.
Dunn, Arthur Lee, Jr.
Gilbert, Robert Lee
Harrison, Herbert Arnold
Hodges, Rudnaldo
Lewis, Gerald Elliott
Mitchell, David Lynn
Mitchell, Joseph Ralph, Jr.
Mitchell, Orderia Fleming
Richardson, Donald Lee
Stallworth, Charles Edward
Thompson, William Lamont
Way, Spencer, Jr.

Class of 1974

Berry, William Monroe, III
Bryant, Frederic Burnett, Jr.
Caldwell, Richmond Harold, Jr.
Collins, Dennis Francis
Crenshaw, Ronald Lee
Hairston, Carleton Perry
Lockette, Emory Will, Jr.
McAlpin, Sherman English
Murphy, Franklin
Robinson, Neal Theriault
Scott, Darryl Allsion

Smith, Clarence Donald, Jr.
Tarleton, Gadson Jack, III
Timberlake, Marion Alvin, Jr.
Walker, Philip Enoch
Watson, Ronald Wayne
Webb, Lance Carleton

Class of 1975

Benjamin, Philip Gill, II
Bready, Alvin
Cason, Wilbert, Jr
Cosby, Willie James, III
Crenshaw, Larry Dean
Franklin, George Edmund, Jr.
Graves, Jeffrey Conrad
Hargrove, Julius Lynn
Kendall, Phillips Louis
Osborne, William Blaine
Roberts, Randy Watson
Smith-Harrison, Leon Ismael
Whitley, Kenneth Lee
Williams, Douglas Leonard, II

Class of 1976

Allen, Calvin Louis
Benton, Jimmie Lee
Butler, Michael Wayne
Campbell, Stephen Carver
Correia, Stanley Charles
Crosley, Hilton Charles
Dantzler, Willie Carl
Davis, William Rodney
Dorman, Glenn Albert
Felder, Lloyd Richey
Franklin, William Houston
Gandy, Edward Rhone, Jr.
Garner, Larry Earl
Gray, Robert Monterio
Hoyes, Michael Bertrand
Johnson Anthony Richard
Kyle, Gary Arthur
Levell, Edward Andrew, III
Macklin, Winfred Hardy, Jr.
Manson, Harold Craig
Miller, Michael Preston
Norris, Johnnie Ethel, Jr.
Palms, Wilfred Gladstone Romel
Pannell, Garland Jerome
Powers, Ahart William, Jr
Reed, Raymond, Jr.
Ross, Dave Morris
Williams, Gregory
Williams, John Frederick

Williams, Mark Ronald
Williams, Roderick Milton

Class of 1977

Adams, Craig Payton
Bailey, Zachary Eugene
Balanciere, Milton Gabriel, III
Clegg, Robert Stanley
Cosby, Ricky Joe
Crafton, Wilson David, Jr.
Cromer, Dejuan
Cross, Michael Anthony
Gipson, Anthony Jerome
Grady, Walter Anthony, Jr.
Johnson, Sterling Anthony
Jones, Clarence Douglas, Jr.
Jones, Daryl Lafayette
Lee, William Charles
Lyle, Harron Von
McReynolds, James Clifton, Jr.
Parker, Thomas Gary
Peters, Burnett William, III
Raichford, Monroe Jose
Robinson, Vernon Lucius, III
Scott, Lynn Monet
Shropshire, Theodore Vernon
Singletery, James
Smith, Gregory Franklin
Wallace, Frank Lee
Wells, Kennard Rodney
White, Kenneth Ray

Class of 1978

Allen, Martin Walter
Clemons, Russell Lewis
Clethen, Eric Lamont
Cooper, Gary Lee
Cox, Andrew Howard
Crowe, Lelvin, Jr.
Dean, Garry Charles
Drake, Ricky James
Ghiden, Reginald Juan
Gilmore, Samuel Lee, Jr.
Gravatt, Wayne Kirk
Harrison, Oliver Walter
Hawkins, Michael Antonio
Henderson, Herbert Hoover, Jr.
Hicks, John Edward
Holder, Livingston Lionel, Jr.
Lankford, Morgan Jay
Lawrence, Michael David
Lee, Lyman Anthony, Jr.
Mason, Linwood, Jr.

Mills, Authur Lee, Jr.
Rice, Edward Augustus, Jr.
Richardson, Anthony
Shaw, William Jefferson
Simons, James Theodore, Jr.
Stewart, Moses, Jr.
Temple, David John
Woodfork, Isaac Keith
Wrenn, Mark Leroy

Class of 1979

Alston, Stephen Maurice
Austin, Christopher Lynn
Belt, James Michael
Blake, Gregory Nathaniel
Bordenave, Paul Basil, Jr.
Brown, Al Christopher
Brundidge, Gregory Lynn
Colvin, James Thomas, Jr.
Donald, Edward Gregory
Dubose, Ted
Duvall, Reginald Alfred
Faulkner, Paul Edward
Francois, Frank, Jr.
Gilchrist, Lenu, Jr.
Hall, Richard Patrick
Harris, Junious Leo, III
Holmes, Reginald Carwin
Jones, Vernon Dale
Leonard, Steven Douglas
Maxwell, Richard Maurice
Mitchell, Verner Devone
Murry, Curtis R.
Osler, Benjanin Franklin
Pate, Waltler Randolph, Jr.
Pearson, Ricardo
Pettersson, Hermes Juan, Jr.
Pointer, Ronald Lynn
Ramirez, Juanito Esteban
Rayfield, William L., II
Robinson, Eddie
Sawyer, Willis Elmer, Jr.
Smith, Gregory Lee
Sowards, Mark Anthony
Thomas, Michael Allan
Warner, Curt Elliott
Watkins, Steven David

Class of 1980

Adams, Daniel Sinclair, Jr.
Alexander, David Lavone, III
Ball, Shelby Gregory
Batts, Stephen Michael

Benjanin, Gail Frances
Benjanin, Vaughn Philip, Jr.
Benn, Mack, III
Best, James Henry
Burrell, Hugh Francis
Campbell, Jeffrey Oikawa
Campbell, Patrick Edward
Desbordes, David Anthony
Floyd, Kevin Steven
Fortson, Michael Loren
Glenn, Michael Leslie
Gray, Ronald Patrick
Gunn, Willie Arthur
Harris, Andre William
Hill, Walter Bryan
Jones, William, Jr.
Knuckles, Gwendolyn
Lester, Thomas, Jr.
Mack, Oscar, Jr.
Mallory, Patrick Anthony
Marshall, Brian
Payton, Timothy James
Robinson, Thomas Elwood, Jr.
Ross, Michael Donnell
Saxon, Frank, IV
Sears, Alvin Darrel
Strickland, Robert Henry, Jr.
Turman, Beverly Carol
Upshur, Robert Adrian, Jr.
Walters, Donald Eric
Warr, Datanian
White, Michael Philip
Woodland, Paul Stanley

Class of 1981

Anderson, Alan Keith
Andrews, Dale
Blount, Robert, Jr.
Brooks, Frank Kelley, Jr.
Burks, Eric S.
Butler, Craig Alan
Campbell, Andre Kazuo
Carroll, Marvin Dee
Clark, David Anthony
Cloud, Albert Thomas, Jr.
Coleman, Clarence J. C., Jr.
Cox, Michael Andre
Dennis, Sheldon
Derry, Heyward, Jr.
Dismuke, Theophus Danier
Dortch, Joseph C.
English, Nelson William
Evans, Adolphus, Jr.
Garvin, Eric Darryl

Griffin, Dress Catera
 Guess, James Allen, Jr.
 Gunter, Gurnie Cornelius, Jr.
 Handy, Dexter Raphael
 Harris, Timonth Alan
 Hasty, Thomas Jefferson, III
 Ingram, Mark Everett
 Jenkins, Craig Michael
 Johnson, Ernest Jerome, Jr.
 Jones, Reginald Lewis
 Knight, Gregory G.
 Manning, Kelvin Monroe
 Perry, Phillip Leon
 Phillips, Charles Edward, Jr.
 Richardson, Ernest Ikuo
 Rosier, Isaac, Jr.
 Silas, Michael Owen
 Smith, Kenric
 Stevens, Cecil Doyle, Jr.
 Steward, Alfred James
 Stewart, Freddie, Jr.
 Streeter, Xavier L.
 Wallace, Everton Ricardo
 Wright, Robert Franklin, Jr.

Lofton, Victor Earl
 Mack, Lin Anthony
 Maize, Robert Darryl
 Marayh, Vivet Vivien
 Mason, John R. Jr.
 Moragne, Jeffrey Arnett
 Payne, Glenn Ray
 Richards, Thomas L.
 Riles, Jeffery Maurice
 Roath, Anthony Sterling
 Robinson, Kenneth Lemar
 Shelton, Cynthia Maria
 Singletery, Rodney
 Smith, Elva Donell
 Smith, James Earl III
 Smith, Kathryn Luberta
 Stevenson, Martha Yvette
 Stevenson, Mary Y.
 Temple, Alan Joseph
 West, Steven A.
 White, Alex J.
 Williams, Darryl Atwell Cecil
 Williams, Edward Lee
 Willis, Cynthia
 Wolters, Tod Daniel

Class of 1982

Bankole, Cullen Raphael
 Barnes, Marion Edmund II
 Berry, Carson Clifford
 Bizzell, William Andrew
 Buchanan, Julia Marie
 Christian, Nathaniel Dean
 Craft, Raymond Scott Jr.
 Davis, Earl Quintin
 Davis, Elton Douglas
 Davis, Howard D. Jr.
 Davis, Michael Nathaniel
 Duncan, Marc Bentley
 Francisco, Raymond Anthony
 Graham, Nancy Francine
 Hamilton, Gregory James
 Hill, Larry Debernies
 Hithe, Troy Anthony
 Howard, Richard Nelson II
 Hunigan, Kirk Alan
 Jackson, Johnny L.
 Jackson, Walter Leon Jr.
 James, George F. III
 Jarrell, Allen Kenneth
 Johnson, Jonnie
 Johnson, Thomas Leo
 Jones, Daryl Patrick
 Jones, Jerome Shedrick
 Lewis, Gregory Lloyd

Class of 1983

Aikens, Johnny III
 Anderson, Nicole Patrice
 Babers, Alonzo Carl
 Bagby, David Brian
 Brisbon, Harris Leonard
 Brown, Virginia Gale
 Bullock, Jay Patrice
 Cannon, Kevin Andrew
 Carter, Norris Emil
 Cephas, Earl Franklin Jr.
 Childress, Iris Ruth
 Collins, Brian Derek
 Corbett, Dorian Isiah
 Dooley, Bryan Paul
 Evans, Quintin Apollodorus
 Gibbs, Gregory Charles
 Gobern, Alexis Martin Jr.
 Gore, Kevin Anthony
 Gould, Patrick Alan
 Grant, Cecil Alphonso Jr.
 Graves, Ronald Earl
 Hall, Nathaniel Craig
 Harris, Charles Henry Jr.
 Harris, Johnnie Claude Jr.
 Head, Robert Lee Jr.
 Hockaday, Cleophas Sandy Jr.
 Holloway, Theodore Patrick
 Hudson, Tony Dean

Hunter, Raymond Alexander
Johnson, Roger Eugene
Johnson, Steven Blaine
Jones, Charles Derek
Jones, Herbert Hoover Jr.
Lewis, Errol Ivan
Lofton, Rickey Oliver
McCray, Cleveland Roy
McDaniel, Donald Anthony
Moore, Kyle Rodney
Peart, Michael Anthony
Peterson, Eugene Gordon Jr.
Pratt, Bryan Phillip
Richardson, Derrick Malone
Robinson, Donovan O'Neal
Rogers, Joh Frederick III
Samuda, Eric Frank
Sears, Emanuel Oliver
Simmons, Richard Irving
Simpson, Dorothy Elaine
Singleton, Harold Leonard Jr.
Smith, Donald Ray
Sullivan, Konda Huff
Tingman, Kenneth Royce
Valentine, Le Angelo
Veal, Kenny
Washington, Erwin Vermont
Williams, Benard Samuel Jr.
Williams, Troy Michael
Winston, Moses Bassanio IV
Yancy, Daniel McKinley

Class of 1984

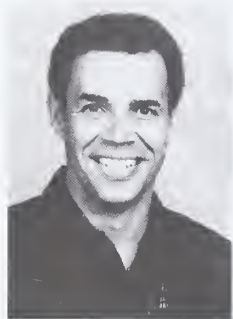
Aiken, Charles Henry Jr.
Allen, Cheryl Anne
Aubert, Steven Fitzgerald
Baker, Herman Lee Jr.
Barrant, Winston I
Bell, Melody Charamaine
Bethea, Mark I
Billups, Aundra Errol
Boyd, Robin Denise
Burke, John Carmeron
Calderon, Joseph Philip
Chatman, Cleophus Dwane
Clark, Andrea Denise
Clark, Warren Howard
Conway, Norphesia Gail
Crews, Alfred Jr.
Dawson, Jay Wesley
Dieudonne, Carl Henri
Dixon, Charles Isaac
Drew, Benjamin Alvin Jr.
Dugue, Brett Angelo

Dulaney, Keith Ladon
Elliott, Grady Narvell Jr.
Fisher, Christopher St. Mark
Freeman, Myron Lee
Glass, George C.
Glass, Robert Charles Jr.
Gomes, Marie Elena
Greer, Byron Lee
Griffis, Craig Eugene
Hamilton, Caleb Leonard
Hargrove, Reginald Pierre
Harris, William James Jr.
Healy, Steven Joseph
Hill, Douglas Edward
Holmes, Stewart Emmet Jr.
Johnson, David Charles
Johnson, Stephen Troy
Jones, Marvin Earl
King, Konrad
Leblanc, Stewart Michael
Malone, Michael Lee
Martin, Mark Anthony
McClary, Wayne Hoyt
McGlotten, Douglas Lyman
Milteer, Michael Norman
Milton, Elbert Jr.
Moore, Lee
Myers, Chris Anthony
Owens, John Edward
Petteway, Malcolm Dylan
Phanord, Bettina Anne
Phifer, Julia Carol
Prince, John Henry Jr.
Randall, Ivan Todd
Reaves, Irving Walter
Revels, Allen Roosevelt
Ross, Hubert Anthony
Rucker, Sharon Lavonne
Scott, Leon Clinsee Jr.
Smith, Eugenio Roberto
Smith, Marcel Renel
Stron, Crystal Lorrayne
Suber, Craig James
Tann, Martin Curtis
Taylor, John David
Thom, Maxie Curenous
Valentine, Fred L. Jr.
Wickliffe, Carlton P.
Williams, Anthony Wayne
Williams, Daniel Ellis
Williams, David Herbert
Williams, Douglas
Willis, Cedric Cornell



Blacks have participated in all aspects of Air Force Academy life since 1959. In 1965, Fletcher Wiley became the first black cadet to receive a Fulbright Scholarship and in 1970, George Keys became the first black Rhodes Scholar from the Air Force Academy.

Another prominent graduate is Lieutenant Colonel Frederick Gregory, a 1964 graduate of the Academy and currently a NASA astronaut at the Lyndon B. Johnson Space Center. He was selected among the eighth group of NASA astronauts in 1978 and is presently a member of one of the space shuttle flight crews.



Lieutenant Colonel Frederick Gregory

Colonel Gregory graduated from Anacostia High School in Washington, D.C., and received a bachelor of science degree from the Academy. He went on to earn a masters degree in information systems from George Washington University in 1977.

After graduating from the Academy, Colonel Gregory was trained as a helicopter pilot, but three years later, he was retrained as a fighter pilot in the F-4 Phantom. He then attended the U.S. Naval Test Pilot School and worked as a research/engineering test pilot from 1971-1977. He has flown over forty different types of aircraft and has logged over 4100 hours of flight time.



Three of NASA's astronauts pose with a mock-up of the Space Shuttle. The group includes, from left to right, Mission Specialists Ronald E. McNair and Guion S. Bluford, and Pilot LTC Frederick D. Gregory

Photo Courtesy: NASA

Blacks at the Air Force Academy Today



During the academic year, cadets are organized into forty squadrons, which are aggregated into ten groups. These units comprise the Cadet Wing. During the year 1977-78, Edward A. Rice, Jr. was named as the first black Wing Commander in the Academy's history. Born in Albuquerque, New

Mexico, he was reared in an Air Force family and attended High school at Yellow Springs high School in Yellow Springs, Ohio. While at the Academy, he majored in engineering science and earned a place on the Superintendent's List (academic honor roll) each year he was at the Academy.

Three blacks have held the position of Vice Wing Commander, the second ranking position. They were Daryl Jones, Daniel Adams, Jr., and Darryl Williams. At least four other blacks have earned positions as cadet Group Commander; Tony Grady, Lyman Lee, Patrick Campbell, and Dartanian Warr.

Cadet leadership positions are important because the Academy's mission is to "provide instruction and experience to all cadets so that they graduate with the knowledge and characters essential to leadership and the motivation to become career officers in the United States Air Force." Selection for cadet command positions at the Academy means that one is developing good leadership traits and is able to hone the essential principles of responsibility, confidence, fairness and self-discipline necessary in today's military officer.

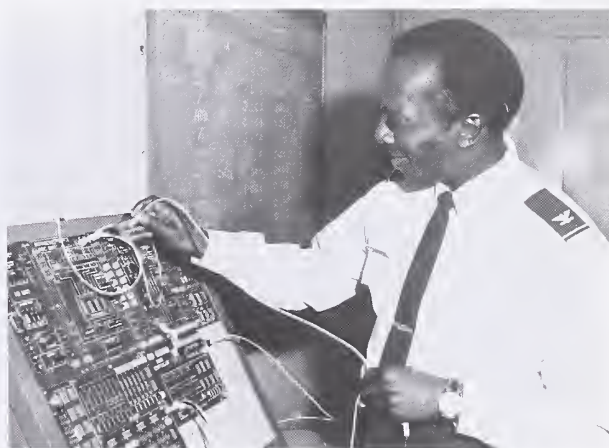
Faculty

Colonel Joseph Monroe was one of the first blacks to join the Air Force Academy faculty in 1967, when he became the course director in an intermediate level computer science course. He served in this capacity for two years and was then assigned to duty in Thailand as director of data automation.

In May of 1972, Colonel Monroe was reassigned to the Academy as assistant professor and course director. In 1973, he was elevated



to associate professor and in July 1976, he became a tenured associate professor. In November, 1978, Colonel Monroe was named permanent professor. Permanent professors are selected from the Air Force at large and are appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate. In June, 1981, Colonel Monroe was named head of the Department of Electrical Engineering. In this capacity, he directs a department of approximately thirty faculty members and is responsible for all electrical engineering course instruction at the Academy. He is the first black officer to hold such a position.



Before assuming his department head position, Colonel Monroe had taught computer sciences,

served as an assistant dean of the faculty, worked with the faculty professional ethics program and in-service training program, advised on minority affairs and recruiting, and served as faculty liaison with the Superintendent's staff.

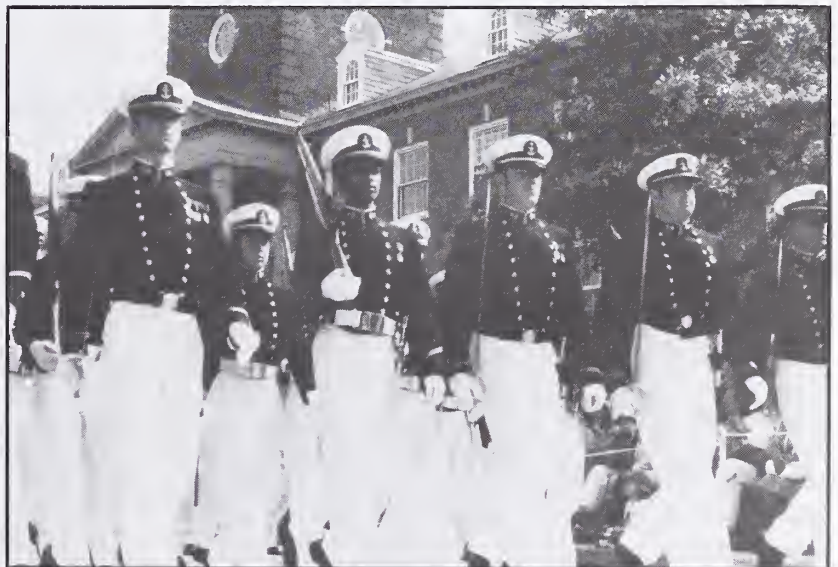
The Colonel received his bachelor of science degree in engineering from

North Carolina A&T State, where he was an AFROTC distinguished graduate. He received a master of science degree in electronic data processing and a PhD in computer science from Texas A&M University. He has also been a research consultant for several government agencies.



The United States Coast Guard Academy

New London,
Connecticut



Introduction

The United States Coast Guard is the smallest and perhaps the least understood of the uniformed military services. The Coast Guard is a branch of the armed forces of the United States, but is a service within the Department of Transportation, except when operating as a specialized part of the Navy in time of war or when the President so directs.

Today's Coast Guard is actually an amalgam of four smaller agencies whose roots extend to the first days of the Republic; the U.S. Revenue Cutter Service, the U.S. Lighthouse Service, the U.S. Lifesaving Service, and the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation.

As a result of these mergers, the missions of the U.S. Coast Guard are many and varied.

Blacks the History of the Coast Guard

In 1716, the first American lighthouse began operations near Boston, Massachusetts. Two years later, its first keeper died in an accident on a trip to the lighthouse. Killed with him were his family and their black slave.

The accident was memorialized in a poem by thirteen year old Benjamin Franklin and the recorded history of black involvement with what would one day become the U.S. Coast Guard began. Little else is known about the role of blacks in the early lighthouse service, but fragmentary evidence exists to show that if blacks were not lighthouse keepers they at least assisted in the operation and maintenance of many lighthouses.

In August 1970, the recently established U.S. Congress authorized Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton to commission ten armed revenue cutters to curtail rampant

smuggling and to assist in the collection of vitally needed import duties; a principal source of funds for the new government.

The ships that Hamilton was authorized were to be armed with "swivels" or small cannon mounted on a revolving base. The guns were needed for the launching of the first revenue cutter in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, but had been ordered from a manufacturer in Philadelphia. When the swivels were ready for shipment, a black woman, Maria Lee, was hired to head the wagon train taking them to Portsmouth.

Smugglers decided to attempt to hijack the cargo, but during their attack Maria overpowered six of them personally while other teamsters drove off the remainder of the raiders. The new revenue cutters could not have begun operations without the efforts of a black American. Despite this contribution, blacks were employed on the revenue cutters only as cooks and stewards.

In 1974 the U.S. Revenue Cutter service began intercepting ships attempting to import slaves into the United States. They continued to carry out this mission of interdicting the slave ships until the Civil War.

Beginning in 1819, the Revenue Service fought pirates off the coasts of Florida and Louisiana and tracked down more slave ships attempting to bring in their human cargos from Africa. Although the Service was protecting blacks from a life of slavery, it moved to prohibit their employment in the Service in 1830. A similar regulation prohibiting the hiring of blacks aboard lightships, except as cooks, was issued in the U.S. Lighthouse Service in 1835.

During the second Seminole War of 1836-1845, the Revenue Service

became known as the Revenue Marine Service and its members carried dispatches, transported troops, and opened blockaded rivers for the Army. In July, 1836, a black man helped defend the Cape Florida lighthouse from a Seminole war party. After a day of shooting and subsequent siege, the Seminoles eventually managed to burn the lighthouse to the ground, killing the unnamed black defender and leaving the white Assistant lighthouse keeper severely injured. The Revenue Marine Service also assisted the Navy in blockading ports and in bombarding shore batteries in the 1846 war with Mexico.

Throughout the American Civil War, the Revenue Marine Service worked with the Union Navy in blockading Confederate ports, in protecting merchant ships from Confederate raiders, and in assisting various military campaigns by clearing rivers, transporting troops, and bombarding Southern forts. During this period, Michael A. Healy was commissioned a third lieutenant in the Revenue Marine Service; the first black American to be an officer.

From 1867-1898, the Revenue Marine Service resumed patrolling U.S. Shorelines, protecting property and saving crews from wrecked ships. In 1877, third lieutenant Healy was transferred from the East Coast to San Francisco. He learned to handle ships in icy waters and was promoted to captain in 1883. During the period 1886-1895, Captain Healy and his crew patrolled the shores of newly purchased Alaska. They became the sole representatives of the U.S. government in the area.

On one trip to the Bering Sea, Healy encountered a village of Eskimos in which over 200 inhabitants had died; most from starvation. Healy soon learned that alcohol and other aspects of white civilization, which included overhunting of local animals, were the source of the pro-

blem. Eventually, Captain Healy and Sheldon Jackson, the general agent for education in Alaska, persuaded the U.S. government to let them import reindeer from Russian Siberia to Alaska to serve as the principal source of food, clothing, and transportation for the Eskimos. By 1902, the Russians stopped the trade but the initial twelve animals brought by Healy and others from subsequent annual trips had grown to a self-sustaining herd of thousands.

Captain Healy had not only saved the Eskimos from starvation, but he had provided the means for them to evolve from a nomadic lifestyle to a more pastoral life; a generally unheralded accomplishment. Healy eventually retired in 1903 as the seventh ranking captain in the United States Revenue Cutter Service.

In 1880, Richard Etheridge, a "colored surfman" was designated keeper of the Pea Island Lifesaving Station off the outer banks of North Carolina. Fragmentary records of blacks in the U.S. Lifesaving Service exist from 1875, but Etheridge's promotion, on the recommendation of an inspecting officer, represents the first time a black had been given such a responsible position.

Etheridge was assigned an all-black crew and this unit became the only all-black organization in the Lifesaving Service. It soon earned a reputation as a very efficient unit. Etheridge's Pea Island Lifesaving Station is credited with saving many lives from wrecked or floundering ships, but perhaps their most dramatic rescue occurred in 1896.

In October 1896, the E.S. Newman, a schooner, left Providence, Rhode Island for Norfolk, Virginia. While underway, the vessel sailed into a savage hurricane which stripped the ship of its sails and pushed it

down to the North Carolina coast. Its captain, afraid of being broken up by the huge waves of the storm, tried to beach the ship. It grounded, offshore several miles below the Pea Island Station. An alert surfman spotted the ship's emergency flares and notified Etheridge.

Waves from the storm were pounding the beach and shoreline but Etheridge lead his crew through the water-logged sand. When they reached the Newman, they discovered that their rescue equipment, which they had laboriously carried with them, could not be set up. Etheridge then tied ropes around two of his crewmen and they swam out to the ship, returning with the ship captain's daughter. Eight more times this arduous trek was made, alternating swimmers, until all the crew of the Newman had been rescued. Their only reward for this effort was the thanks of those rescued.

Although Etheridge died in 1900, Pea Island remained an all-black station. When the Lifesaving Service merged with the Revenue Cutter Service in 1915, to become the U.S. Coast Guard, the tradition of an all-black crew continued. Blacks served at Pea Island until the station was deactivated in 1974.



Some of the crewmen of Pea Island Station. Note the surfmen's single-breasted uniform which eventually was changed to the more conventional double-breasted uniform of the Coast Guard

From 1867-1898, the Revenue Marine Service patrolled the U.S. shoreline. But when war broke out with Spain in 1898, the Service again assisted the Navy. It performed blockade duties in Cuba and participated in Admiral Dewey's dramatic victory at Manila Bay in the Philippines. Perhaps its most dramatic service, however, was rendered during the battle for Cardenas Bay, Cuba, in May, 1898.

The revenue cutter Hudson, two Navy gunboats, and a torpedo boat raided the Spanish facilities in Cardenas Bay. They met heavy defensive fire from shore-based batteries. The Navy torpedo boat was soon disabled by fire, but the Hudson moved through the hail of shells to take the ship under tow and eventually removed it from danger. The entire crew of the Hudson, to include its two black members, was honored by Congressional resolution and awarded bronze medals for their bravery.

By wars end, smuggling in the United States had ceased to be a major problem and proposals were made in Congress to eliminate the

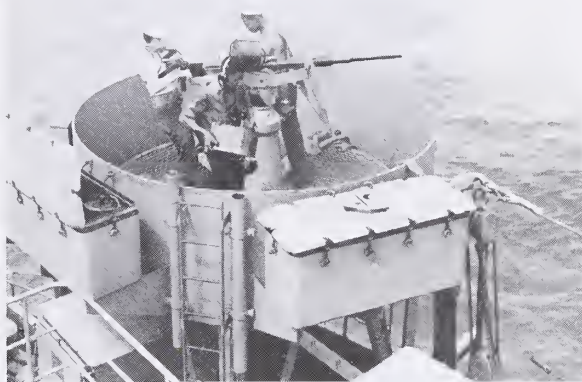
Revenue Service as a cost saving measure. The ensuing controversy, however, highlighted the value of the Service, so rather than eliminate it, Congress merged the Service with the Lifesaving Service to create the U.S. Coast Guard in January, 1915.

In 1939, one of its most famous members enlisted in the Coast Guard. During his first ten years of service, Alex Haley, was a steward. He wrote articles for popular magazines on the side. While working in the Guard's public relations office in New York, Haley's commanding officer discovered one of Haley's magazine articles. A few months later, the Coast Guard established the rating of journalist and the steward-author was assigned the new rating. A few years later he became the Guard's first Chief Journalist.

Alex Haley retired from the Coast Guard in 1959, but he used the writing and research skills honed during his years in the Coast Guard to write the best selling Autobiography of Malcolm X, to work as the chief interviewer for "Playboy" magazine, and to author the Pulitzer Prize winning novel Roots.

When World War II began for the United States in December, 1941, the Coast Guard had been an operational part of the Navy for a month. Throughout the war, it maintained the security of U.S. ports, performed convoy escort duty, and fought German U-boats which once again imperiled U.S. coasts. Coast Guard members also participated in all the major amphibious operations of the war as they operated landing craft, troop transports, destroyer escorts, supply vessels of all sizes, and tugs.

Black Americans were a vital part of the Coast Guard contributions to the war effort. In 1942,



Champion gun crew in World War II

Secretary of the Navy Knox announced that blacks would be accepted in all ratings for which they qualified, rather than being restricted to the Stewards Branch. This decision applied to the Coast Guard as well. During that same year, the Coast Guard established an all-black Coast Guard station at Tiana Beach, Hampton Bay, Long Island. The men at this station operated weather instruments and provided weather reports up and down the coast in addition to guarding against German submarines.

In June 1943, Lieutenant Carlton Skinner recommended to the Commandant of the Coast Guard that blacks be sent to sea as part of integrated crews rather than as all-black crews. This was considered a radical idea for the time. The Navy was experimenting with two all-black crews during this period, but previously established traditions of segregation were hard to break.

The Commandant did not directly respond to Lt Skinner's proposal. However, several months later Skinner received orders to report to the Sea Cloud, a converted yacht being used for weather patrol. This duty required the ship to maintain a designated position at sea for 20-30 days at a time and to make regular reports of the weather.

Skinner reported for duty and just days before embarking on his first patrol, Skinner met twelve black seamen who had been assigned to the ship. His idea had been accepted. During its various patrols, the Sea-Cloud had only one combat experience and was credited with assisting in the sinking of a German submarine. More importantly, however, the Sea Cloud proved that blacks and whites could work together for common goals. As a result of this experiment and its own test of all-black crews, the Navy issued a policy in 1944 which permitted up to ten percent of the general ratings in non-combat ships to be black.

Although blacks comprised only slightly more than two percent of the Coast Guard's strength, the impact of their contributions was felt in future years. In 1943,

Joseph C. Jenkins became the first black commissioned officer in the Coast Guard when he was commissioned as an Ensign.

In 1944, the Coast Guard began to recruit whites for the previously all-black stewards branch. Ensign Harvey Russel became the first black to be commissioned through the Coast Guard's Officer Candidate School that same year. Also in 1944, Lieutenant (jg) Clarence Samuels became the first black officer to command a Coast Guard cutter and black women were accepted for service in the SPARs, the Coast Guard's reserve organization for women.

In 1945, the Coast Guard integrated another ship, the destroyer escort Hoquim which operated from Adak in the Aleutian Islands. Ironically, Carlton Skinner, then a Lieutenant Commander, commanded the ship.

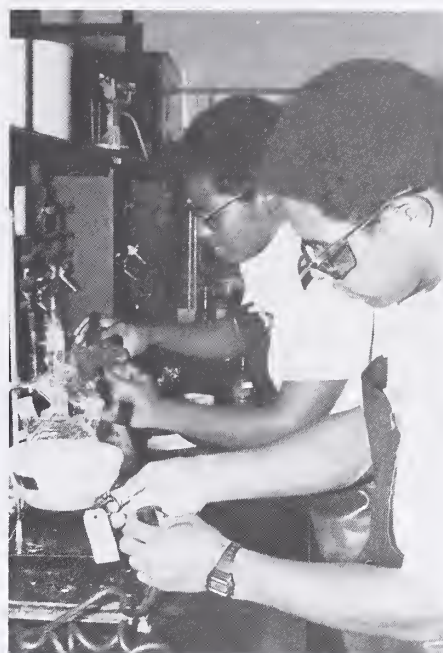
The U.S. Coast Guard Academy

The U.S. Coast Guard Academy is the only military academy to select its candidates from a national examination only. There are no Congressional or Presidential appointments.

In 1863, the Secretary of the Navy attempted to have the functions of the Revenue-Marine transferred to his department in order to provide billets for excess graduates from the Naval Academy. Although this and a second attempt in 1889 failed, the Navy did succeed in having the Revenue Cutter School closed. It remained out of business until 1894 when rapid expansion of the Navy employed all Naval Academy graduates and the Revenue Service experienced a high turnover of its own officers and the school was reopened.

From 1894 to 1900, the Revenue School of Instruction moved from port to port with no land based training. In 1900, however, the School of Instruction was given a land home at Arundel Cove, Maryland. Here the program of instruction grew to three years. The longer course and the increased size of the cadet corps soon necessitated larger quarters which were eventually located at old Fort Trumbull near New London, Connecticut. The school moved there in 1910.

When the Coast Guard was created in 1915, the name of the Revenue School of Instruction was changed to the U.S. Coast Guard Academy. The demand for more officers to serve in the expanding Coast Guard and to help fight the Prohibition rumrunners required further expansion of the Academy. It was not until 1929, however, that money was appropriated to build the present 100 acre site in New London.



In 1946, the present training ship Eagle was acquired and the corps of cadets grew to its present size of approximately 1200 persons. In 1962, Merle J. Smith became the first black to enter the U.S. Coast Guard Academy. He graduated in 1966. Since that point, the number of black graduates has been relatively small, but steady, as the following list of black graduates indicates:

Class of 1966

Smith, Merle J.

Class of 1968

Boyd, K.D.

Steverson, Lonnie E.

Class of 1970

Pickrum, William W.

Class of 1972

Brown, Erroll

Demmitt, Melvin H.

Dupree, Anthony J.

Jones, Joseph H.

Thornton, R. B.

Vaughn, Woodrow P.

Williams, Charles

Class of 1973

Brown, Michael W.
Penn, Allen W.

Class of 1974

Lamberson, E.
Thompson, Allen L.

Class of 1975

Busman, Wayne D.
Flynn, Elijah
Lesesne, Patrick
Tilghman, Tim E.

Class of 1976

Lawrence, David R.

Class of 1977

Burns, Earl A.
Odom, Curtis

Class of 1978

Brown, Manson
Finney, Daniel
Harrison, Benjamin
Loadholt, Joseph
Richards, Edward
Smith, Cleon

Class of 1979

Mobley, Robert
Rice, Charles
Spears, Robert
Wright, James

Class of 1980

Callwood, Austin
Gandy, Theodore

Class of 1981

Walker, Roderick

Class of 1982

Upshaw, Anthony N.

Class of 1983

Dennis, Angela
Reese, Daphne
Roberts, Christopher E.

Class of 1984

Nedd, Kevin M.
Skillings, Peter M.



In 1976, the Coast Guard Academy began to accept women. While there are black women currently enrolled, a black woman has yet to graduate from the Academy. In 1978, Manson K. Brown became the first black cadet in the 101 year history of the Academy to be named cadet brigade commander.

The mission of the United States Coast Guard Academy is "To graduate young men and women with sound bodies, stout hearts, and alert minds, with a liking for the sea and its lore, and with that high sense of honor, loyalty, and obedience which goes with trained initiative and leadership; well grounded in seamanship, the sciences, and the amenities and strong in the resolve to be worthy of the traditions of commissioned officers in the United States Coast Guard in the service of their country and humanity."

In that, it has succeeded as this brief review of the history of the Coast Guard has indicated. Black Americans have played a significant part in fulfilling that mission and will continue to do so in the future.









Black Civilians

in the Department of Defense

BLACK CIVILIANS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

In addition to service with military forces, black Americans have faithfully served the defense effort of this nation in a variety of positions as civilians.

Non-discrimination in Federal government employment first became a matter of public policy with the passage of the Ramspeck Act in 1940, but no organization was created to monitor or enforce compliance with the policy. During World War II, however, President Roosevelt created two committees on Fair Employment Practice; the first in 1941 and the second in 1943. These committees were authorized to make recommendations to Federal departments and agencies on how to eliminate discriminatory employment practices, but were not empowered to require that those recommendations be implemented. Prior to that time, discrimination and segregation had been accepted practices in Federal employment. Black clerks working for the Navy in World War I, for example, were surrounded by screens in order that they would be shielded from public view.

The Pioneers

World War I saw a major expansion in government size and programs. Black Americans participated in significant numbers for the first time as government employees. In order to help in the human resource planning required, the Secretary of War appointed Emmett J. Scott, a black American and former secretary to Booker T. Washington, as special assistant. Scott served as a confidential advisor on matters affecting blacks and participated in War Department planning for utilization of blacks. Most of his work was devoted to blacks in the military, although he addressed some civilian issues.

The years between the two world wars saw little attention to issues affecting black civilian employees. As the nation mobilized for war in 1941, it became clear that black Americans wanted to play a much larger role in the war effort than had occurred in previous conflicts. Consequently, the President appointed William H. Hastie to be Civilian Aide to the Secretary of War on October 25, 1940. Hastie was to advise the Secretary on all matters influencing the racial policies of the Army.

Judge Hastie had extensive government experience and was the former dean of the Howard University Law School. He was to work in formulating policies for the utilization of blacks in all branches of the Armed Forces and to investigate their implementation. Further, he was to investigate both military and civilian complaints of discrimination and to make recommendations for their resolution.

In 1943, Judge Hastie resigned in a policy dispute and was replaced by Mr. Truman K. Gibson, Jr. who retained many of the same responsibilities. Mr. Gibson also conducted an investigation of the alleged poor



Dr. James C. Evans

performance of the all-black 92nd Division in Italy. In 1946, Mr. Marcus H. Ray became the Civilian Aide, and in 1947 Dr. James C. Evans succeeded to the position. Dr. Evans served in this or similar positions to ten Secretaries of Defense until his retirement in 1970. The Department of Defense recognized his many outstanding contributions at its 1980 Black History Month Observance by presenting him with a special plaque.

The efforts of these personages served to keep the issues impacting on blacks in the minds of policy officials. In November 1962 their efforts to institutionalize non-discrimination in DoD resulted in the creation of a new position -- Deputy Assistant Secretary for Civilian Personnel, Industrial Relations, and Civil Rights. Blacks who held this, or successive positions, include:

L. Howard Bennett

Jan. 1, 1970-Jun. 3, 1970

Frank Render II

Jun. 7, 1970-Aug. 25, 1971

Donald L. Miller

Dec. 1, 1971-Jan. 20, 1973

Curtis R. Smothers

Jan. 21, 1973-Jun. 5, 1973

H. Minton Francis

Jul. 6, 1973-Mar. 8, 1977

Statistics

Although non-discrimination became government policy in 1940, the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, which was established to enforce the policy, was relatively ineffective. It could receive and investigate complaints, but had limited enforcement powers. Nonetheless, it did much to make government officials, and the public, aware of issues of discrimination.

In March 1944, blacks constituted 11.8 percent of all War Department employees and 14.6 percent of all Navy Department employees. Studies

done during this period indicated that most black civilians were clustered in custodial, laborer, and clerical occupations. The pattern of employment did not drastically change during the period 1945-1964, although there were a series of reorganizations and new executive orders which attempted to address the situation.

Passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the signing of Executive Order 11246 in 1965 brought new emphasis to anti-discrimination programs in government employment. Concepts of nondiscrimination gave way to equal employment opportunity and affirmative action. The Department of Defense developed affirmative action plans and removed barriers to the employment and promotion of blacks, as well as other protected groups.

Although the overall participation rate of blacks in the DoD workforce has not changed much since 1943, blacks have entered a wider variety of jobs and occupy much higher grade levels than at any other time in the history of the Department. The chart below summarizes black participation rates in DoD for the period 1969-1979.

Black Civilians in DoD, A Workforce in Transition

There are more high ranking black men and women in the Department of Defense now than ever in its history. Even though the total DoD workforce has decreased, black civilian employees have increased from 11.8 percent in 1976 to 13.8 percent now. Blacks are gaining in the Senior Executive Service and in Executive Level positions. They are increasing in the professional employment series, and are moving into managerial and supervisory positions in the General Schedule and Wage Series. They are using the training and development programs throughout DoD. Black women, in particular,

are advancing from clerical positions to higher graded series by participating in the Upward Mobility Program.

DoD is helping to facilitate employment of blacks with special efforts such as carrying out Federal Equal Employment Opportunity

Programs, Affirmative Action Program Plans, and Managerial Development Programs to enable employees to gain training positions for advancement through the grade structure. For the first time in its history, the Department has embarked on a comprehensive and systematic analysis and planning for civilian affirma-

DoD-All Pay Systems

<u>Years</u>	<u>Total black</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Black Male %</u>	<u>Black Female %</u>
1969	125,124	11.5		
1970	115,462	11.4		
1971	112,426	11.3		
1972	113,087	11.6		
1973	109,426	11.8		
1974	109,343	11.6		
1975	106,066	11.5		
1976	108,451	11.8	7.7	4.2
1977	109,034	12.1	7.7	4.4
1978	111,852	12.1	7.6	4.6
1979	106,175	12.1	7.6	4.5
1980	121,484	13.2	7.8	5.4
1981	127,515	13.3	7.6	5.7
1982	130,312	13.4	7.6	5.8
1983	136,258	13.6	7.6	6.0
1984	140,258	13.8	7.5	6.3

DoD-General Schedule

<u>Years</u>	<u>Total black</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Black Male %</u>	<u>Black Female %</u>
1969	49,620	7.8		
1970	46,800	7.8		
1971	45,883	7.7		
1972	47,569	8.1		
1973	46,945	8.4		
1974	49,362	8.6		
1975	49,370	8.7		
1976	51,810	8.9	3.5	5.6
1977	53,022	9.4	3.6	5.8
1978	55,134	9.6	3.6	6.0
1979	53,886	9.7	3.7	6.0
1980	60,307	10.4	3.8	6.6
1981	65,310	10.8	3.9	6.9
1982	69,617	11.3	4.1	7.2
1983	74,478	11.7	4.2	7.5
1984	79,504	12.2	4.3	7.9

tive action programs which will fully integrate and institutionalize EEO plans into its management and budgetary processes. Our success is enhanced by increased activity and cooperation of organizations such as Blacks in Government (BIG), Inter-Agency Minority and Female Recruiters Association (IMFRA), Federally Employed Women, Inc. (FEW), and our internal Federal Women's Program. Our equal opportunity personnel are working with executives and managers of all Defense Components to set employment goals, to establish training program objectives, and track

results. By using the New Federal Equal Opportunity Recruitment Program, and targeting occupational series where blacks are underrepresented, we expect to place and advance more black employees in the Department of Defense. As the largest employer in the Federal sector, the Department of Defense accepts the challenge to continue to move forward with innovative EEO programs to meet the President's objective to create a workforce that is more reflective of the diversity of the American society.

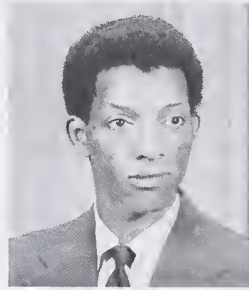
DoD-Wage Systems

<u>Years</u>	<u>Total black</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Black Male %</u>	<u>Black Female %</u>
1969	75,322	16.8		
1970	68,494	16.9		
1971	66,261	16.9		
1972	65,038	17.0		
1973	60,875	17.0		
1974	59,564	16.8		
1975	56,316	16.5		
1976	56,225	16.7	15.0	1.8
1977	55,554	17.0	15.2	1.8
1978	53,187	17.1	14.9	2.2
1979	49,052	17.0	15.0	2.0
1980	53,294	18.1	15.5	2.6
1981	53,489	17.5	14.9	2.6
1982	51,913	17.1	14.6	2.6
1983	52,890	17.0	14.4	2.6
1984	51,939	17.0	14.2	2.8

Black Americans in the DOD Senior Executive Service



Mr. Isaac E. Barbre
Deputy Auditor General
Army Audit Agency



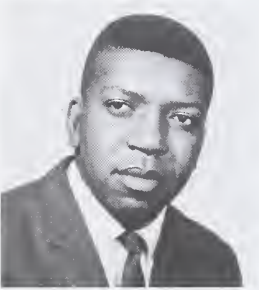
Dr. George R. Carruthers
Senior Astrophysicist
Naval Research Laboratory



Mr. Oliver F. Braxton
Department Head/Deputy
Technical Director
Associate Technical
Director
Naval Surface Weapons
Center



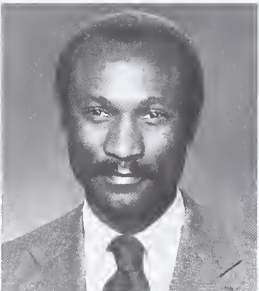
Mr. Thomas E. Daniels
Deputy Director, Combat
Surveillance and Target
Acquisition Laboratory
U.S. Army Electronics
Research and Development
Command



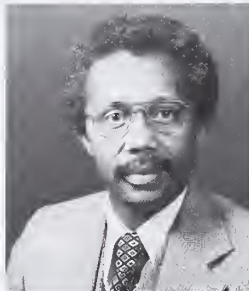
Dr. James I. Bryant
Assistant Director for Threat
Integration
Office of the Deputy Chief of
Staff for Research Development and
Acquisition
U.S. Army



Mr. Fred Davidson, III
Deputy Assistant Secretary
of the Navy (Reserve Affairs)



Mr. Jerry L. Calhoun
Principal Deputy Assistant
Secretary of Defense
(Manpower, Installations
and Logistics)



Mr. Guy C. Dillworth
Technical Director/Consultant
Naval Coastal Systems Command



Photo
not
available

Mr. William E. Cambor
Assistant Division Engineer
for Intergovernmental Affairs
Corps of Engineers
Europe Division
U.S. Army



Mr. Valeris O. Ewell, Jr.
Director, Acquisition
Management Review Agency
Office of the Assistant
Secretary of the Army
(Research, Development
and Acquisition)



Mr. Joseph A. Floyd
Assistant Deputy Chief of
Staff for Policy and
Procedures
Office Deputy Chief of
Staff for Supply
Maintenance and
Transportation



Mr. Anthony W. Hudson
Staff Director, Personnel
Defense Logistics Agency



Mr. Maurice L. Fowler
Assistant Deputy for Contracting
Electronic Systems Division
Air Force Systems Command



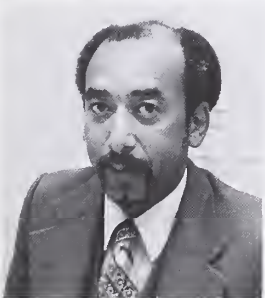
Mr. Robert D. Jack
Executive Director, Planning
and Resources
Naval Supply Center



Ms. Claire E. Freeman
Deputy Assistant Secretary of
Defense (Civilian Personnel
Policy and Requirements)



Mr. Robert Q. Jenkins
Assistant Deputy for
Contracting and
Manufacturing
Space Division
Air Force Systems Command



Mr. Archie D. Grimmett
Assistant Deputy Chief of
Staff for Civilian
Personnel
Office Deputy Chief of
Staff for Personnel
US Army
Material Command



Dr. Frank B. Johnson
Chairman, Department of
Chemical Pathology
Armed Forces Institute of
Pathology



Mr. Claiborne D. Haughton Jr.
Director, Equal Opportunity
Programs (Civilian)
Office of the Deputy Assistant
of Defense (Equal Opportunity
and Safety Policy)



Mr. Carroll D. Lee
Special Assistant to the
DCNM(P&FM)
Director, Financial
Management Systems
Branch
Naval Material Command
Headquarters



Ms. Norma B. Leftwich
Director, Small and
Disadvantaged Business
Utilization
Office of the Secretary of
Defense



Mr. Walter W. Pattishall
Associate Technical
Director for Electronic
Warfare and Intelligence
U.S. Army Electronics
Research and Development
Command



Mr. Charles F. Martin
Chief, Advanced Technology
Division
Defense Mapping Agency



Mr. Paul L. Peeler, Jr.
Technical Director
Defense Mapping Agency
Aerospace Center



Mr. Robert P. Moore
Deputy Technical Director/
Director, Technology Planning
and Assessment Group
Office of Naval Research



Mr. William B. Robertson
Assistant Director
(Business and Resource
Policy)
Office of Economic
Adjustment
Office of the Assistant
Secretary of Defense
(Manpower, Reserve
Affairs, and Logistics)



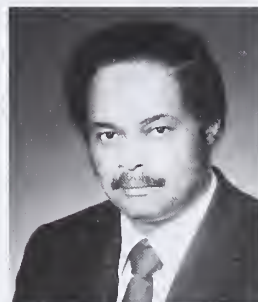
Mr. George H. Motley
Technical Director,
Armament Division
Naval Air Systems Command
Headquarters



Mr. Charles G. Sanders
Executive Director, Life Cycle
Support Group
Naval Electronic Systems
Command



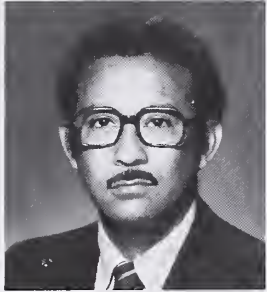
Dr. Robert L. Norwood
Deputy for Air and Missile Defense
Office of the Secretary of the Army



Mr. James E. Schell
Director, Tactical
Computer Systems Center
U.S. Army Communications-
Electronics Command



Mr. John W. Shannon
Assistant Secretary of the Army
(Installations and Logistics)



Mr. Delbert I. Spurlock, Jr.
Assistant Secretary of
the Army (Manpower and
Reserve Affairs)



Mr. Frederick E. Tillman
Chief, Investment
Appropriations Division
Directorate of Budget
Office of the Comptroller
of the Air Force



Mr. Daniel Turner
Comptroller, Military
Sealift Command
Department of the Navy



Ms. Juanita P. Watts
Director, Office of Small and
Disadvantaged Business Utilization
Office of the Secretary of the Army

Department of Defense



HUMAN GOALS

Our nation was founded on the principle that the individual has infinite dignity and worth. The Department of Defense, which exists to keep the Nation secure and at peace, must always be guided by this principle. In all that we do, we must show respect for the serviceman, the servicewoman and the civilian employee, recognizing their individual needs, aspirations and capabilities.

The defense of the Nation requires a well-trained force, military and civilian, regular and reserve. To provide such a force, we must increase the attractiveness of a career in Defense so that the service member and the civilian employee will feel the highest pride in themselves and their work, in the uniform and the military profession.

THE ATTAINMENT OF THESE GOALS REQUIRES THAT WE STRIVE

To attract to the defense service people with ability, dedication, and capacity for growth;

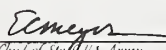
To provide opportunity for everyone, military and civilian, to rise to as high a level of responsibility as possible, dependent only on individual talent and diligence;

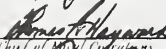
To make military and civilian service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, color, sex, religion or national origin,

and to hold those who do business with the Department to full compliance with the policy of equal employment opportunity;

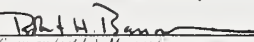
To help each service member in leaving the service to readjust to civilian life; and

To contribute to the improvement of our society, including its disadvantaged members, by greater utilization of our human and physical resources while maintaining full effectiveness in the performance of our primary mission.

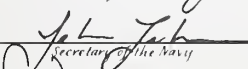

Chief of Staff, U.S. Army

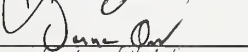

Chief of Staff, U.S. Air Force


Chief of Staff, U.S. Navy


Commandant U.S. Marine Corps


Secretary of the Army

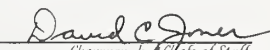

Secretary of the Navy


Secretary of the Air Force

May 18, 1981


Secretary of Defense


Deputy Secretary of Defense


Chairman Joint Chiefs of Staff

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